

THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

Vol. XVII

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BELGIAN LIBRARIES AND THE WAR

J. F. VANDERHEYDEN

IN WORLD WAR II Belgium was again hard hit, and in the library sector relatively harder than any other of the united nations on the Continent. Our libraries, both large and small, had to pay a hard tribute. While we have not been complaining loudly about it, this does not mean that the damage done was small or that we do not realize the importance of the losses we suffered.

The fact that Belgium is situated on the natural road of invasion, and that our provinces have been for centuries the traditional place where the clashes between East and West or North and South are staged, has obliged every other generation to start all over again and to rebuild what foreign hands had wantonly destroyed. We have become used to the game. We seem to take it for granted, just as we take it for granted that the uniforms of the successive occupation forces, whatever their color, will, after a while, disappear from our streets. That is what any new occupant can read in the mocking eyes of any youngster he passes on the sidewalk. Ineluctably he goes, and we stay.

There have been whispered criticisms of what may be called our pre-war policy of taking adequate measures for the safe preservation of our library material, or

rather our failure to do so. The origin of this occasional misrepresentation lies in the lack of knowledge of some facts of vital importance.

The 1947 reader has to bear in mind the special conditions under which we in Belgium spent the first months of this world crisis. We too had our Pearl Harbor; the war struck us brutally on May 10, 1940, when we were awakened by the roar of German aircraft swarming in a perfect sky. Even before we fully realized that war was on, and before the national colors were flying above our national police headquarters and town halls as a sign of general mobilization, hundreds of our countrymen, civilians as well as men in the forces, far inland as well as on the outposts of our defense system, had fallen victim to the invasion. That is history.

Before that fatal May 10, our country, as a "neutral" nation, was officially on friendly terms with all its neighbors. As a result, although hundreds of thousands of men had been mobilized, normal life was supposed to go on; the schools remained open and the universities did not stop their work, although the ranks of their faculty members and students were thinned. Consequently, it was impossible to close the doors of our libraries or to

move all library material out of the towns or university centers. Even if this had been possible, where would we have moved it? For reasons which are evident, it could not be sent abroad; and in Belgium itself there are no safety zones. Belgium is small, a tiny spot on the map—11,744 square miles (a little larger than Massachusetts and Rhode Island put together), and it is dotted all over with towns and villages; with about seven hundred inhabitants per square mile, it is the most thickly populated region in Europe. The larger part of it is flat countryside, cut by roads, rivers, and canals; nobody could foresee which road invasion might take, where a stand would be made, where battles would be fought, where devastation would begin or end. The only region of rocky hills where large emergency underground shelters might possibly have been built or used lies in the sector which was most exposed.

The only sensible, in fact the only possible, thing to do seemed to be to leave the mass of the material on the spot, take all possible precautions for the collections at large and special measures for the safe preservation of the most valuable library documents, and wait and see.

In 1943 and 1944, when Allied bombers chose the main centers in the Belgian railway system as their target, when the student body went underground, or when fears of a sudden expulsion from a building by the Germans made moving imperative, some librarians in threatened zones had parts of their collections scattered over several places. This, of course, simply meant taking other chances. The story of the state archives in Arlon is rather illuminating. In the summer of 1944 it was deemed wise to remove the archives documents to a safer place, since the Germans threatened to lay hands on the building. The material was

accordingly transferred to a small town, Chatillon; later a sister-town, Saint-Léger, was wiped out, and Chatillon barely escaped the same fate. It was sheer luck that the archives material had not been deposited in the doomed town; nobody would ever have dreamed of the possibility that Chatillon would be spared while the near-by Saint-Léger would be reduced to a heap of rubble, a name on the map, and a souvenir of by-gone days in the memories of those who spent part of their lives there. It was all a gamble. In 1939 I suggested to one of my colleagues at the university that he should move his seminar collection and the documents which he had been collecting on place-name study for more than twenty years, from the second floor in the Louvain library to the reinforced concrete vaults in the basement. My arguments must not have sounded very convincing, for his collections never left his seminar—and they were saved. The fire that devastated the library in 1940 stopped at the door of his room. A flame that must have crept inside between the door and the sill gently licked the base of one of the bookcases near the door, but this case did not catch fire. Thus his collections escaped, while all the materials which had been placed in the vaults for safekeeping were turned into dust and ashes. However, transferred to one of the university institutes, miles from any military target, these collections were partly destroyed and a large number of books and documents scattered into the four winds when a V-bomb came down in the court of the institute in January, 1945.

At the beginning of the new world crisis library directors were taking safety measures. In the Royal Library in Brussels new reinforced concrete shelters were built in the basement of the oldest wing

of the building; the vaults in the cellars were reinforced likewise, and all necessary measures were taken to fight an eventual fire on the upper floors. When hostilities were opened in Poland, the most precious library treasures were stored in these basement shelters. At the University of Louvain, which is housed in a new building with concrete vaults, steps were taken from the beginning to remove the valuables to the safe rooms. The librarian of the Jesuit Institute in Eegenhoven, near Louvain, thinking that Brussels as the capital would be safer, brought some sets of periodicals and other collections to one of the Jesuit residences in Brussels. At the moment of the transfer we did not fully realize the fate of Warsaw, and we were not aware of what the Germans had in store for Rotterdam or for Tournai. But this librarian made a lucky choice; the Eegenhoven library was reduced to ashes on May 16, and the only volumes saved out of a total of about sixty-four thousand were those which had been transferred to Brussels.

Aside from a few lucky chances, all the pains taken to provide shelters for the most valuable documents went unrewarded. The space of less than one week saw the complete destruction of more than one million library volumes, among them sets of irreplaceable treasures which had been placed in the seemingly safest hiding places. The story is a sad one, a monotonous repetition of the same facts and findings.

What happened?

The first wave of destruction rolled over the country during the eighteen days when the Belgian army, along with the British and French armies, was fighting a losing battle to stem the German invasion. Without the slightest warning the German armies and air forces at-

tacked the Belgian outposts and wiped out the Belgian air force at four o'clock in the morning of May 10, 1940. From that day on until May 28, Belgian cities, towns, and villages were continuously and relentlessly bombed and machine-gunned, and in these tragic days one library after another went up in flames.

The second devastating wave rose a few months before D-Day. Several important centers in the Belgian railway system were subjected to severe air raids with a view to disrupting railway traffic on which the German war machine had to rely to a large extent. Courtrai, Mechlin, Louvain, and other cities were severely hit during night air raids. But, as a matter of fact, few library books were lost in this stage of the war.

During the Battle of the Bulge and the accompanying V-bombing of the Antwerp and Liège areas, new damage was caused in the library sector.

In the first wave of destruction, Saint Trond was the first town in Belgium to lose some of the books which were treasured within its walls. Saint Trond is situated on the junction of the Maas-tricht-Brussels and the Liège-Brussels roads. Center of a fruit-growing district, it is also the seat of an old Franciscan convent in which the young recruits of the order receive their theological training. As such, this monastery is the study and research center of the Belgian Franciscan province, and thus it housed a specialized library collection of more than seventeen thousand volumes. In 1939 the manuscripts, the incunabula, and a collection of important books were evacuated to safe rooms in the basement, and in this manner about five hundred precious volumes have been preserved. The day after the invasion (May 11, 1940), German aircraft bombed the town; explosive bombs and incendiaries

hit the convent, and the library was completely burned out. From 1941 on, work on building a new collection was started with the assistance granted by the outstanding Belgian scientific institutions.

The prelude to the liberation of Europe cost the Franciscan fathers a large part of another of their book collections. Their convent on Vanderlinden street, Brussels, was badly damaged by Allied bombing on May 11, 1944, exactly four years after the Saint Trond bombardment. One of the bombs hit the library wing of the building, destroying some of the books and burying others under the rubble. The water pipes burst, and water flooded the basement, in which the most precious volumes had been stored from 1939 on. As soon as the roar of the last machines faded away, desperate efforts were made to extract from the flooded cellars the boxes in which the treasures were packed. In subsequent weeks it was possible, since the weather was rather dry, to rescue from under the ruins of the building about two-thirds of the library stock—some ten thousand volumes.

These "accidents" were but minor items on the list of casualties.

Tournai is one of the places that suffered worst at the time of the German invasion. In the afternoon of May 16, 1940, the center of the old and venerable town, which for a time had been the capital of the Frankish and Merovingian kings, was bombed by the Luftwaffe. During that night and the next day, new air raids caused the complete destruction of the very center of the town, except for the old cathedral.

The first raid smashed the windows and inflicted only minor damage on the library building, but during subsequent attacks the building caught fire and the collections were destroyed. This was a

severe loss, for Tournai had a large centuries-old collection of valuable documents. Of its 73,000 volumes, 71,546 were burned, and among those destroyed were rare and valuable editions by Plantin (Antwerp), Estienne (Paris), and J. Blaeu's *Novum ac magnum theatrum*. A set of 106 incunabula, including samples from the most famous printing houses in Belgium, France, Italy, Germany, and Switzerland, fell a victim to the flames. A precious manuscript collection of 232 items had to be written off as a total loss; this set included the illuminated manuscript of the fourteenth-century *Traité du songe de la bataille des vices et des vertus*, the *Martyrologe de Saint-Amand* (fourteenth and fifteenth centuries), the *Ritmes et refrains des Tournésiens* (1477-91), *Herimannus historiam tornacensem variis tractatibus deducens* (fourteenth century), *Liber ecclesie santi Martini Tornacensis* (twelfth century), and a manuscript outline of the history of Tournai by A. Sanderus (seventeenth century).

Less than a month after this disastrous fire, the library opened in the annex, which had been spared. The problem of building the library collection again was tackled at once. An appeal was made to the Tournai population, and the city, province, and state authorities granted special allowances. Book gifts and other support came in, and special attention was given to the local history division and to the collection of samples of typographical productions and of works by authors born or raised in the Tournai area. Most of our "public" libraries take pride in setting up similar sections, and some of these collections, such as those in Antwerp, Bruges, Mechlin, and Roulers, contain irreplaceable books or ephemeral documents which are not duplicated anywhere. This and the fact

that Tournai has been for centuries the Athens of the southern "black belt" may throw some light on the historical value of the pre-war Tournai library and on the importance of the disaster.

A similar fate befell the City Library of Ostend. This town, one of the fashionable watering places on the North Sea coast, is the most important fishing port; there is also a regular boat service between Ostend and Dover, England—a fact which was fatal to the town. From May 15 on it was continuously bombed by German aircraft, and in one of these devastating raids it lost its public library. The collection was not very large—about thirty-five thousand volumes, mostly modern—but in pre-war days Ostend had been planning to use it as the nucleus of an up-to-date extended library stock for which a new building was contemplated. The library and the city archives, going back to 1605, were housed in the same building. Both collections were completely destroyed on the night of May 27-28, when a rain of incendiary bombs came down upon the heart of the town. Not a single book, not a single document, was left. During the first days of the invasion most of the registered readers had returned the books which they had taken out, so that the library loss was almost complete. After the devastation only five hundred volumes were turned in by readers who had neglected to do so previously and whose homes had been spared. For once, refractory and negligent borrowers rendered a real service to the community. No time was lost in crying over the spilt milk, and, despite the hard conditions under which a coast town had to live during the German occupation, the small library staff succeeded in bringing together a new collection which at present amounts to about fifteen thousand volumes.

THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

Louvain.—Louvain's story fills one of the most depressing pages of the history of the German invasion. After the criminal devastation of the library by the Germans in August, 1914, a new, splendid building in Flemish Renaissance style was erected on Mgr Ladeuze Square and H. Hoover Square as a gift from the American people.¹ Hundreds of names of schools, academies, colleges, universities, scientific institutions, and learned societies that generously contributed to the erection of this monument were carved in its walls and columns. The promoters, the architect, the funds, even a part of the equipment were American; the layout reminded one of such university libraries as those of Minnesota and Illinois, and a large number of books were donated by American benefactors. The building was dedicated July 4, 1928, and from that memorable day on the carillon in its 290-foot high tower sprinkled its silvery tunes over the old university town. Every year hundreds of American tourists visited this monument and passed through the main reading-room, looking for the colors of their schools among the hundreds of flags

¹ The new library was erected on a site about half a mile from the old "Cloth Hall" which had housed the university collections of manuscripts and books until their destruction in 1914. After its restoration the old hall was turned over to the administrative services of the university, and part of it was used as an assembly hall and museum. A stone bearing an inscription recalling the devastation of this building in 1914 was sealed in one of its walls. The inscription, *Furore testonico diruta, dono americano restituta*, was never put on the balustrade of the new building; but its absence was a fact which the commanding officers of the German army unit that shelled Louvain on May 14, 15, and 16, 1940, were not even aware of (cf. *Royaume de Belgique, Ministère de la Justice, Commission des Crimes de Guerre, Les Crimes de guerre commis lors de l'invasion du territoire national, Mai 1940: La Destruction de la Bibliothèque de l'Université de Louvain* [Liège: G. Thone, 1946]).

of American institutions which decorated its walls.

The building-up of the new library collections after 1914 took many years and was made possible through the generous co-operation of many sympathizers and benefactors. After Armistice Day, November 11, 1918, gifts poured in from all over the world, since numerous national committees had been gathering material for the new Louvain collection. A special article in the Peace Treaty of Versailles placed upon Germany the obligation of putting at the disposal of Louvain funds to take care of the partial replacement of the collections which had been wantonly destroyed by its army in 1914. After being housed in emergency quarters for about ten years, the new collections were shelved in the new library in 1928. As a result of tremendous effort and labor, more than nine hundred thousand volumes had been acquired and cataloged and assembled in the steel bookcases in the glass-floored stacks when on May 10, 1940, the storm broke loose over the Netherlands, Luxemburg, and Belgium. On the morning of that very day all staff members who were not mobilized rushed the accessions books, the catalogs, and the ten thousand volumes of reference material in the processing department and reading-rooms into the fireproof vaults and concrete cellars. Here they were piled up with other treasures, the manuscripts and incunabula which had been removed to the basement in September, 1939.

After two days of bitter fighting on the outpost line, the Belgian army fell back to the main defense line, where they took up their position together with the British and French forces. Louvain was on that line. Because of the speed of the German advance and the general confusion, any massive moving of library ma-

terial out of the town was out of the question. As the Germans were approaching steadily and quickly, the British military authorities, who had taken over the command in the Louvain sector, ordered the Louvain population to evacuate the town at once on the afternoon of May 14, after the German artillery started shelling the place. Of the thirty-eight thousand inhabitants about four or five hundred, most of them older persons, refused to leave; they preferred staying, hiding away in cellars, and dying on the spot to being thrown on the roads with the hundreds of thousands of refugees in search of a safety zone.

German artillery, which had taken up its position on the outskirts of the town, started shelling the library tower and the stacks in the rear of the building on May 16. At night the library stacks were ablaze, and when on May 19 Mgr van Waeyenbergh, Rector Magnificus (president) of the university, was allowed to come back to Louvain in the early morning, the fire was still raging in the basement and in one of the wings of the building. Several days later, when the fire was over, it was discovered that the stacks, the reading-rooms, most of the seminar rooms, the administration offices, the basement, and their contents were burned out. The walls of the building were still standing, but the roofs were gone and the east flanks of the tower were scarred by artillery shells. The stack equipment and steel framework were turned into a heap of twisted uprights, distorted iron bars, and steel plates on top of a layer of dust and ashes. The fire started at one end of the stacks, and it is assumed that it spread from that point to the rest of the building; the molten glass of the floors must have found its way into the basement and vaults through the ducts of the heating system. Through the burst water

pipes water got into the basement, flooded it, and completed the havoc. Some of the seminar rooms in two wings of the building had not been reached by the fire, but it was only after several weeks that their contents could be moved to safety, when the German authorities, who kept the keys of the building at the local *Kommandantur*, granted permission to evacuate these documents, books, and periodicals to safer emergency quarters. In the meantime some of this material had been damaged by rain seeping through the ceilings, or what was left of them, and some books had vanished.

The damage suffered by the Louvain collections was terrific. It had taken twenty-five years to build up a collection which was unique not only in Belgium but even in western Europe. On the day of this disaster Louvain had on her shelves more than nine hundred thousand volumes; they were gone. About fifteen thousand volumes shelved in the seminar rooms were saved, and these, added to some six thousand volumes which had been lent to various university institutes and laboratories, formed the only surviving part of the central university library resources. Students in Romance languages will learn with regret that the fifteen thousand magnificently bound volumes of the private library of the late Baron François de Béthune, former professor of French philology at the university, which had been donated to the university library, were destroyed.

After the first fire in 1914 the university, having to build up a new library collection *ab ovo*, could not afford to spend its funds on collecting rariora. No attempts were made to bring together a large set of manuscripts or incunabula. It was (and at present it is again) the policy of the library administration to set up a collection of modern tools for

higher education and research. Even so, the library possessed eight hundred manuscripts that were older than the eighteenth century; three hundred of them were prior to the sixteenth century. About fifteen illuminated small-sized manuscripts which had been placed in a special safe escaped the fire. The three manuscripts belonging to the library before World War I, the only ones preserved in 1914 (they had been borrowed), were destroyed this time. So also was the new collection of 811 incunabula, containing, among others, a set of samples of all the incunabula printed in Louvain and one specimen of the output of each printing-shop in the Low Countries prior to 1501. This collection was probably unique in Belgium. About two hundred well-preserved prints of old masters and some other engravings were also lost, as were the fifty-six in-folio volumes of reproductions of oriental manuscripts of the Pierpont Morgan Collection in New York, together with 22,605 photocopies of practically all existing Coptic manuscripts made and collected by Professor T. Lefort in the course of forty years of field work in the Middle East and during his visits to the most important libraries in the world.

The bookplate of the Louvain University Library bears under the "Seat of Wisdom" the inscription, *Non everletur*; though the university had lost its scientific arsenal overnight, its spirit remained indomitable. A few weeks after the destruction a Committee for Restoration of the Louvain University Library was created under the direction of the president of the university. A network of regional and local committees spanned the entire country; a drive for books and money was begun, and the results were most gratifying.

For the loss of the Louvain collections was felt in Belgium as a *national* disaster.

Before 1940 Louvain was famous for its numerous complete sets of scientific periodical publications as well as for the wide range of its collections of modern scientific books. As a result, it played an important part in the interlibrary loan system in Belgium, lending "many more books to the three other universities than it borrow[ed] from all three combined."² The efficiency of its organization and the richness of the material which it could put at the disposal of research workers were widely appreciated, even by foreign visitors.

Common suffering and sharing the same dangers seem to make members of a national community forget what has been dividing them. The restoration of the University of Louvain during the occupation was another inspiring example and demonstration of this fact. In those days it was fully realized that the Louvain collections were just a part of our national book stock and that the Louvain books and periodicals, like those of any other research library, were part of the tools of any research worker in Belgium.

Although Louvain is an endowed—what we call a "free"—institution, and not a state-administered university, help for building up a new collection was tendered from every quarter in Belgium from the very beginning. Books and periodicals were collected; financial support was granted by private sympathizers and some public authorities. Thus the foundation of a new library collection could be laid. Books and periodicals were bought in Belgium, in France, in the Netherlands, and in Germany. After the middle of 1942, however, German bookdealers

² Douglas Waples, "Belgian Scholars and Their Libraries," *Library Quarterly*, X (1940), 249.

were not eager to fill any foreign orders. The transportation to Louvain of the volumes which had been collected by various subcommittees all over the country was one of the problems to solve, since the last truck of the university was requisitioned by the Germans in 1941. Moreover, several sympathizers preferred not to hand over their contributions at that time; they feared that the Germans might close the university and lay hands on the new collections. This danger was by no means imaginary. In 1943, when the students refused to turn out for "free labor service" (which in fact was compulsory), and when the president of the university refused to hand over to the Germans the registrar's list with the names and addresses of registered students, Louvain had its full share of troubles and of days of intense anxiety. University lecture halls were raided, students were arrested, and the president of the university, Mgr. van Waeyenbergh, was apprehended and sentenced to eighteen months in jail. But the Germans did not dare to close the university. Nevertheless, it was deemed wise to remove the most valuable books from the new collections. A set of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* which a generous donor had handed over to the librarian, the Right Reverend Professor Dr. E. van Cauwenbergh, remained only a few months on the reference shelves in the reading-room. As it became known that librarians had learned at their expense that some of the German services had a weakness for this reference work, the Louvain copy was put in a less conspicuous place, and by 1943 it was taken out of the building, together with whole sets of scientific periodicals and other valuable library material. As a matter of fact, no books were taken away by the Germans.

In April, 1944, when the Allies started their devastating raids on Belgian railway centers as a prelude to the coming invasion and when university lectures were practically no longer delivered, the bulk of the periodical sets and newly bought books were evacuated from Louvain to a sanatorium about six miles from the old university city. The rest of the collections, amounting to more than three hundred thousand volumes, stayed in the American College in Louvain. This building, which had remained empty after the American students left in September, 1939, at the outbreak of the war, had been used as the emergency quarters of the library since June, 1940. It had a narrow escape on the night of May 11-12, 1944, when Louvain was raided by the Allies and the town and the university suffered enormous losses. A heavy bomb came down near the American College; an annex was smashed, but fortunately no books were in it. The doors and windows in the main building were blown in; the concussion shook heavy pieces of plaster from the ceiling in almost every room, and a thick layer of gray powder and fine dust, mixed with glittering splinters of glass, covered floors, furniture, and books. It took weeks to clean the place and its contents and to take the necessary measures to keep out the rain and the ubiquitous dust.

It is hoped that by the beginning of the next school year most of the new collections and the library services will move into the partly restored library building on Mgr Ladeuze Square. For even during the occupation the rebuilding of the devastated library was undertaken. Unfortunately, it took the Germans more than a year before they could make up their minds to grant permission to start work. At that time it was too late; building materials were scarce, and

all sorts of regulations had to be complied with. As a result, it was possible only to put a provisional roof on three wings of the building and to do some minor repairs. Before this permission was given the Germans had staged an elaborate show; in May, 1940, they wanted to prove that the retreating British troops had wantonly set fire to the library. A German committee which arrived on the spot a few days after the fire claimed to find traces of gasoline used by the British to start the fire. A version of the committee's report was published in the *Völkischer Beobachter*, the *Kölnische Zeitung*, and the *Brüsseler Zeitung*. This inquiry had been unilateral; its findings were most suspicious and its conclusions far from convincing. Even the Germans must have felt so; they ordered a new inquiry by an expert whose conclusions invalidated those of the previous committee. That fact is all that seeped through, for the results of this inquiry were never disclosed, never published, never referred to in the German press. Nor were they communicated to the person most concerned—the president of the university. In the meantime, members of the Wehrmacht, and later men of the "Organisation Todt," started the clearing of the stack wing. The twisted and distorted steel uprights, beams, and roof supports, and the steel plate shelves were taken out and neatly sorted in heaps on the square in front of the building. The ashes and rubble, once removed from the stack, were sifted. The German version of this activity was that this work was a part of the investigation into the origin of the fire and that the steel and iron would be turned over to the proprietor of the building—the university. One morning, however, German trucks backed up to the building and were loaded, and the American steel and steel

plate were on their way to German steel mills.

At present the carillon, high up in the scarred tower, again sprinkles its silvery tunes on the town.

The Jesuit Institute.—In 1940 the library resources of the Jesuit Institute in Eegenhoven-Louvain, already referred to, amounted to sixty-four thousand volumes. These were shelved in a central library and in several subject divisions. This special library housed, among other collections, a remarkable section on philosophy, including irreplaceable editions of works by medieval and Renaissance philosophers, a well-provided collection of source materials and publications on Greek and Arabic philosophy, and princeps editions of Kant's most important works. The history of science is another field in which the holdings of this library were among the best in the country as to their relevance and their scope.

Together with the laboratories and collections on natural science housed in the same building, this library of the "Collegium Philosophicum" was one of the main tools put at the disposal of the young recruits of the Company. These completed their philosophical and scientific training in a three-year course at Eegenhoven-Louvain. At the same time, it was a workshop for the professors and research workers in the fields of philosophy and the history of science.

Although this institution was a private library, it could be used by any research worker who was in need of material not available in other libraries.³ Its collections of periodicals were listed in the union catalog of the scientific journals and serials which are, or rather which were, on the shelves of the outstanding Belgian scholarly libraries,⁴ and any re-

search worker could draw upon its resources through the efficient interlibrary loan system.

All these treasures must be written off as a complete loss. On May 16 the building was shelled by German artillery; by night it was ablaze, and all its contents went up in flames. Nothing remained of the collections except some two thousand volumes that had been transferred to Brussels. About sixty-two thousand volumes had been taken from the shelves and piled up in solid piles six feet high on the ground floor of the library, which was a reinforced concrete building of recent (1928) construction. After the fire a layer of ashes eight inches high covered the floor on which shortly before thousands of volumes had been piled.

In December, 1940, work on building up a new collection was organized, and it has been in progress ever since; it will, however, take many years and the generous support of many sympathizers to fill this important gap in Belgian library resources.

Brussels.—The Brussels University Library had to shut its doors when the university was closed in 1942, after the university board refused to appoint two new professors who were forced upon them by the Germans. The library staff was expelled from the building, but in September, 1942, two attendants were granted permission to come back, since the library was allowed to continue to play its part in the interlibrary loan system. Before the closing of the university, the librarian, sensing the difficulties and dangers that lay ahead, had most of the special collections in the seminar rooms and institutes transferred to the central library building and piled up in compact heaps. This probably saved these valuable special collections from destruction when units of the Wehrmacht and, later on, of the S.S. troops were billeted in the

³ Cf. Waples, *op. cit.*, pp. 243, 251.

⁴ *Index des publications périodiques existant dans les bibliothèques de Belgique* (Brussels, 1935).

university halls and institutes. Although there was no systematic mass removal of library material from the central library, some volumes were taken away by the Germans. Also, some two hundred library volumes borrowed by university professors and students who were deported to German concentration camps and whose homes were confiscated were lost when their private libraries were sold or dispersed. The hurried retreat of the Germans in September, 1944, prevented them from carrying out any plan they might have had of taking with them any important section of the library stock.

Liège.—In 1939 plans were being made for a new library building for the second of our two state-administered universities, Liège. The new building was to be erected on the site occupied by the present central university library on Cocke-rill Square. Part of the grounds were cleared by the demolition of a wing of the old building; this caused the moving of an important part of the book stock into temporary quarters—in the basement of an old bank, unfortunately near the telephone exchange, and in an annex of the State Archives Building.

On May 11, 1940, the blowing-up of the Meuse bridges by the Belgian army services damaged what remained of the old building, and some more books had to be taken out. These were piled up in a hurry in the basement of another building near by. Here they remained for about two years until they could be shelved on the upper floor of the Institute of Chemistry. In September, 1944, retreating German troops wantonly blew up the telephone exchange. A fire which broke out reached the bank in the basement of which tens of thousands of volumes had been piled. Thanks to the courage of the janitor, the fire did not reach the basement, but the water with which

the firemen had been flooding the building seeped through the floor. More than sixty thousand theses were soaked in the dirty water. Overnight mold covered all the volumes in one of the rooms, so that it became most urgent to remove immediately every volume stored in what remained of the building. This work was undertaken on September 18. A fortnight later, more than four hundred thousand volumes and twenty thousand prints had been brought to safer places by the library personnel, members of the faculty, and forty boy scouts. But, even so, fifty thousand volumes had to be written off as a complete loss.

This was still not the end of the trouble. On December 24, 1944, during an air raid on the city by German planes, a bomb hit the State Archives. Since 1938 an annex of this building had housed about seventy thousand volumes belonging to the university. No damage was done to these books, but they had to be removed again to make room for archives documents which were saved from the fire.

To complete the picture, it should be mentioned that a certain number of volumes lent to the university institute in Val Benoit were lost in the destruction of that institute.

Ghent.—At the outbreak of the war the bulk of the collections of the state-administered university at Ghent were still shelved in the old abbey building which had been the seat of the library for more than a century. Indeed, the new building, which has a tower stack of twenty-four tiers, was not completed when the Germans invaded the country. No damage was suffered in 1940, and during the occupation all the collections were transferred to the new building. Because of the lack of suitable material, the equipment of the new library could not be finished according to pre-war plans, but provi-

sional arrangements permitted the library collections and services to be housed in the new quarters. At the time of the German retreat, on September 3, 1944, a German demolition unit blew up some machinery which had been placed on top of the book tower, damaging the upper part of the tower and the roof of the public catalog room. On September 7 and 8 the book tower was shelled by German artillery, and about eight thousand volumes of French doctoral dissertations shelved on upper floors were destroyed.

THE ROYAL LIBRARY

The Royal Library in Brussels, which is our national library and houses the largest book and manuscript collections in the country, came out of the war without any damage; a few manuscripts which had not been returned before May 10, 1940, were lost in the Louvain fire, and some books borrowed by members of the German military administration were not turned in during late August and early September, 1944, because of the hasty retreat of the German forces.

Some library volumes were also lost after Dr. Max Sulzberger, a staff member of the Royal Library, was arrested because of his Jewish background and deported to Auschwitz (where he succumbed shortly after arrival). His private library, together with such library volumes as he had borrowed and been unable to return, was dispersed and sold by the Germans. Subsequently a few of the library books were traced in shops of second-hand book-dealers.

In pre-war days, special safe rooms had been built in the basement of the oldest wing of the building and plans prepared for storing the invaluable manuscript collection and the rarest and most precious items from the magnificent col-

lection of prints, coins, and incunabula. During the first days of the invasion some members of the staff wanted to send some of the library treasures to France. M. V. Tourneur, head librarian, took a firm stand and refused to yield on this point, and nothing left the building. It was a wise decision; the confusion on the roads and railway system before and after the collapse of the French armies and the bombing and machine-gun strafing of the convoys by German planes would not have contributed to the preservation of these treasures.⁵

The manuscripts had been arranged in the shelters in such a way that they could be located and handed over to the readers in the manuscript division.

Later on some historical collections, among them the *Bibliotheca Hulthemiana*, the first nucleus of the Royal Library, were piled up compactly in the corners of the basement rooms. It was assumed that this way of storing them would be safe in case of a fire or of the collapse of the building. Thus these books were no longer available, but in the abnormal circumstances this could not be helped; most of the books are practically irreplaceable, and some of the collections as a whole are unique.

BRUGES AND ANTWERP

Bruges and Antwerp have a different story to tell. In 1940 these two cities were practically spared.

Once the occupation of western and southern Europe was completed and the German armies were making their sensational drive into Russia, an eventual attempt at invading Europe from the west had to be reckoned with. The Atlantic Wall was built, and towns on our North

⁵ A collection of scientific periodicals owned by the large concern "Union chimique" was lost after it was shipped off by rail at the last minute.

Sea coast were partially evacuated by order of the Germans.

Convinced as the Germans were, or seemed to be, that final victory was theirs, and anxious as they were to avoid unrest and disturbances in the western occupied countries, at the beginning German authorities avoided open interference with matters which had nothing directly to do with the economic and military war effort. They had decided that they would win the war and that Europe and all its contents would consequently be theirs. A final decision on the war spoils could be deferred until after peace was re-established. In such circumstances no serious attempt was made to transfer to Germany the bulk of our public library resources, at least not in the earlier stages of the war.⁶ A member of the German administration was put in charge of supervising the Belgian libraries (*Bibliothekschutz*). In this role we had first Dr. Schreiber, then Dr. Schiele, both of them professional librarians. Except for their occasional intervention in the appointment of top-rank personnel, and except for their interest in the way librarians had been dealing with suppressed books, their direct and immediate influence on internal library administration and organization was practically nil. It should be pointed out, however, that Dr. Schiele helped younger library staff members to stay in Belgium when, according to the general labor regulations issued by the German military administration, they would otherwise have been deported to Germany. He helped them obtain the life-saving papers and certificates necessary to remain.

⁶In the archives sector German officials were more insistent on "collaboration" between Belgian and German archives—without any success, however (cf. C. Tihon, "Les Archives de l'État en Belgique pendant la guerre," in *Archives, bibliothèques et musées de Belgique*, XVII [1940-46], 3-13).

Both these *Verwaltungsräte* spent most of their time in the manuscript department of the Royal Library in Brussels, making lists and detailed descriptions of manuscripts the origin or contents of which had something to do with Germany. We never learned exactly the purpose of listing this particular type of material. It is likely that this work was one of the stages of a carefully prepared plan aiming at a methodical transfer or exchange of some of our manuscripts.

All this should be borne in mind in connection with the order issued by the German authorities to the city officials in Bruges and Antwerp in 1942. Since Bruges is only ten miles from the North Sea coast and since the important port of Antwerp (on the Scheldt) could be a potential objective for an invasion, the city officials in both places were ordered to move their most costly collections of archives, manuscripts, books, prints, paintings, and other valuables to safer places more inland. A château in Lavaux-Sainte Anne, in the Belgian Ardennes (Province of Namur) was picked out as the repository of these valuables. The basement was remodeled, an air-conditioning plant was installed, and all necessary precautions were taken for the preservation of these treasures. The transfer took place in 1942; Dr. H. F. Bouchery, at that time curator of the Plantin Moretus Museum in Antwerp, was put in charge of these collections. There they remained until August, 1944. In the course of that month, as American forces were approaching this sector, there was a mysterious attack on this castle, during which Dr. Bouchery was injured. Since this hiding-place did not seem safe any longer, the treasures were loaded on two convoys and hurried to Brussels. On August 26, 1944, after crossing a Meuse bridge near Dinant the

second convoy was attacked from the air. Four persons were killed and many more injured, and some documents belonging to the Archives of Bruges and to the Museum of Literature in Antwerp were damaged.

This, however, is not the end of the story as far as Antwerp is concerned. This city suffered most during the battles for its liberation, and during the V-bomb attacks on the metropolitan area. Some of the cultural institutions of the city were affected at this time.

The Antwerp Central Library, which houses the main reference collections of the Antwerp public library system, escaped with the loss of a few window-panes. Two of the branches in the system were destroyed by fire, with the loss of about three thousand volumes. The Museum of Flemish Literature, also a part of the library system, in which irreplaceable documents on the literary and cultural life of the Flemish provinces are preserved, was damaged by German shell fire in September, 1944, and by the concussion of a V-1 bomb that exploded near by on December 16, 1944. Since the larger part of the collections was still in safety in Brussels at that time, only a few books were lost; but the building was badly shaken.

A similar fate was in store for the historical building in which the world-famous Plantin Museum was housed. On January 2, 1945, a V-2 bomb hit the small square on which this museum is located. The havoc was terrific; the houses inclosing the square on three sides were flattened, and the Plantin House was devastated. The collections, except for a few pieces of ancient furniture and some presses dating from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, were safe in Brussels, so that damage was held to a minimum; but it will take sev-

eral years before all traces of this destruction are completely wiped out.

The library of the Diamond Workers Union in Antwerp was raided by representatives of the *Rosenbergstelle*. They laid hands on an important part of its collections in its history, literature, and economics divisions. The archives of the institution and of the World Federation of Diamond Workers were sold for waste paper.

OTHER LIBRARIES

Courtrai City Library, which possesses a most valuable local history collection and some other rare documents—for example, a manuscript of Gilles li Muisis—lost some of its books in May, 1940, and others on July 21, 1944, in a most devastating Allied air raid. From May, 1944, on, the second floor of the library building had been used by the Germans as a prison (*Sammellager*) for the men who preferred "going underground" to working for them in Belgium or Germany. On July 31, 1944, the building collapsed on top of the books which had remained in the building but which had been removed from the second floor to the ground floor and piled up there after the partial occupation of the library by the Germans. Since there was no fire after the raid, it was possible to rescue most of the books during the following weeks. As for the most valuable documents, they had been stored in 1939 in the safes of a bank building. Unfortunately, this bank was situated too near the railway station, and its safes were damaged in the same air raid as the library building. Water seeped through the walls and floor; some of the documents were soaked, and all of them had to be taken out. The sixteenth- and seventeenth-century paper and ink of the documents which could be dried immediately were

found to be admirably resistant. The larger part of the collections had been scattered in shelters and basements over the town and its suburbs from 1943 on, so that the losses in July, 1944, were comparatively small, although some books which had been stored in an underground shelter suffered from humidity, and about two hundred of them were lost.

The Namur Library had a pre-war stock amounting to about thirty thousand volumes. The building in which the collections were housed was devastated in an Allied air raid on August 18, 1944; about two thousand volumes had to be written off as a total loss, and five thousand of them were damaged.

The collections of the Bibliothèque Centrale de la Ville de Liège, which functions as the public library of that city, survived the war unhurt, although on December 28, 1944, during the Battle of the Bulge in the Ardennes, a V-1 bomb came down about fifty yards from the building. Doors and windows were blown in, and the library, which had been kept open all through the occupation, was closed for about two months.

As for the smaller public or popular libraries scattered all over the country, about four hundred of them were either completely wiped out or badly damaged. The reading stock of this type of library was reduced by 186,308 volumes.

READING IN WARTIME

Wartime is also reading time. During the war new bookshops sprang up in growing numbers, and there was a boom in the book business. Some economic collaborators and black market profiteers who feared postwar judicial and fiscal trouble and devaluation deemed it wise to invest their profits in expensive bibliophile editions, as well as in paintings,

furniture, and other movable goods. Some sank their money into shelf-lengths of volumes without even looking at them. It was no wonder that prices skyrocketed.

The enormous pre-war influx of French books into Belgium being altogether stopped, several new publishing houses rose. These enterprising publishers and some older houses started to supply with reprints and new editions the national market, from which all foreign competition was banned. The same was true of books in Dutch.

Sensing the general need of finding a refuge in reading, some publishers threw on the market popular priced pocket-size reprints on cheap paper, including both classics and popular authors. The success of the scheme was immediate. Reading was about the only thing for the average Belgian to do in his spare time, aside from pedaling around the countryside on his bicycle to look for extra butter, meal, or potatoes. The blackout during these five years helped to encourage people to stay at home and look for relaxation there. The Germans and their "scalawags" arranged for most attractive concert programs and organized lectures and shows, but few civilians attended them. The programs of the shows that could be staged by professional or amateur dramatic artists were supervised by the Germans; no play by an Anglo-American author was authorized, Shakespeare and G. B. Shaw being the only exceptions tolerated. Even the moviegoers after a while became sated with the stale propaganda they were forced to swallow. The American, French, and British films being banned from the screen, during the first months of the occupation the Germans cleverly showered the theaters with the finest samples of their pre-war film production. These were good films con-

taining no political propaganda; some of them were excellent entertainment, and as such were undoubtedly innocent-looking and softspoken ambassadors of German culture. However, after a while such films became scarcer, and moviegoing lost much of its favor. When the German regulations on "compulsory labor" and "free labor service" were enforced in 1943 and 1944, when football stadiums were raided by Gestapo and Wehrmacht members, young men no longer risked themselves on the streets, and in many a hiding place a book became a dear companion. There were fewer newspapers on the newsstands; weeklies were scarce, and most of them had, to put it mildly, a certain political flavor. It was no wonder that books were in favor more than ever and that there was a tremendous rise in the use of libraries. In 1940 Antwerp counted 14,751 registered readers; in 1941, 18,053; in 1942, 28,531; and in 1943, 29,360. The figures on borrowed books for the same years are 583,166, 845,027, 866,413, and 919,045. In the Royal Library in Brussels the exhibition hall had to be turned into a second general reading-room in 1941, since the main reading-room did not offer sufficient space to seat the growing number of readers and students. (Brussels still has no modern public library, and the national library, although it does not lend books to individual borrowers, has to a certain extent, against its rules and statutes, practically to play the part of a public reading center for local readers.)

This increase of interest in books did not mean that one was allowed to read all one wanted to read. On August 13, 1940, a *Verordnung* prohibited the sale and diffusion of any anti-German publications; until a list of forbidden titles was published, each book-dealer and library attendant had to decide for himself

whether a book should be suppressed or not. A list was compiled and approved by the military commander for Belgium and northern France on July 9, 1941. It was issued in Brussels under a hypocritical bilingual title, the French version of which is: *Contre l'excitation à la haine et au désordre. Liste des ouvrages retirés de la circulation et interdits en Belgique*. Among the books listed in this booklet were even some French and Dutch editions of *Mein Kampf*; it should be added that full particulars were given on the editions that were to be diffused, as containing the authoritative text of Hitler's prose. This black list was a rather puzzling affair; many titles which one would have expected to find listed in it were missing. It opened with two lists of prohibited books—one of French titles and one of publications in Dutch. It was made clear, however, that translations and editions other than the ones listed, as well as the original versions of these works, were to be suppressed. Bromfield's *The Rains Came* was on the list; so was Zane Grey's *Vanishing Indian*. There followed a list of about fifty German titles of works by Jewish writers and emigrant authors. The next chapter contained an impressive series of names of authors all of whose works were forbidden, among them John Dos Passos and H. R. Knickerbocker. The compiler added to this florilegium a black list of publishers whose total production was to be banned.

Librarians took the titles of these suppressed books out of the alphabetical authors' catalog and filed them separately; as a rule the cards for these books were left in the subject catalog. The books were not placed on the open shelves, and in libraries with closed stacks they were not removed from their places.

Copies of English and American books

vanished from the bookstands, and translations of them could not be had. Prices soared. In 1943 second-hand copies of the French translation of *Gone with the Wind* brought five or six times the pre-war price of new copies, if they could be found. The Germans, of course, discouraged the publication of new issues of translations of Anglo-American literature. They made one exception, however; hoping probably that it would be useful to their propaganda machine, they had the bookshops flooded with copies of the Dutch and French translations of Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath*. As a result, many potential readers simply postponed reading it until the Germans had left the country. They missed something; but the German maneuver did not succeed.

LIBRARY PROGRESS IN BELGIUM

The research libraries in Belgium train their own personnel; there are no schools which deliver the certificate which is required for an appointment on the staff of these institutions. After graduation from a university following four or six years of work, aspiring librarians of scholarly standing go through a year of apprenticeship or training in library technique in one of these libraries; at the end of the year they pass an examination. In a small country like ours the profession does not offer sufficient possibilities to justify the opening of a library school or a special section or department in our universities. Moreover, the present procedure of initiating young men with the necessary qualifications of scholarship into the techniques of library work can, if properly applied, give perfectly satisfactory results in filling the more important positions in our scholarly libraries. A change in the scheme was planned in 1939, when the government issued regulations for the organization of courses in

library science in the Royal Library in Brussels for the benefit of the probationers in that library and in the two state university libraries. However, in order to avoid any interference from the Germans in the appointment of the teaching staff, no steps were taken to materialize these pre-war plans during the occupation.

The "librarians"—the confusion in titles in Belgium is bewildering—of the innumerable small popular libraries scattered all over the country are trained in what may be called "emergency institutes." They attend a one-, two-, or three-week course and later on are examined by a state examination board.

Few towns in Belgium have a public library system. Antwerp is an exception, holding a unique position in the country. Liège too has a public library; Mechlin is making efforts to set up a public library organization; and Ghent got a public library during the occupation. Roulers, Ostend, Bruges, and Louvain have what are called "public libraries." In most cases, however, these libraries are really of the reference and scholarly type housing valuable historical collections; the lending of books can be carried on only on a small scale, and the reading facilities for the public in the library are far from what they should be. Years ago voices were raised proclaiming the utility and necessity of creating public library systems in each important urban area and regional library organizations for the rural part of the country. Traveled and competent librarians, eager to make their countrymen share their enthusiasm for and their faith in the modern library movement, drew enticing pictures of the service which a modern library could give to the community, but no means were put at their disposal to materialize these dreams. If Antwerp and Liège are left out

of the picture, it may be said that those kind-hearted and well-meaning apostles of the public library were simply crying in the wilderness.

Shortly before World War II some signs were pointing to a change. But the time was not yet ripe. War intervened, and at present it is still a question whether we have reached the point where the creation of a type of public library service that suits our needs is possible.

During the occupation one of the policies of the Belgian officials who stuck to their jobs was to avoid any modification in the administrative machinery or in the existing institutions, unless it was forced upon them by the German occupation authorities or unless vital interests of the population under the occupation were at stake. It became clear that an indelible odium would cling to any innovation patronized by the Germans and "scalawags." It seemed likely that the end of the occupation would mean the end of most, if not all, of the institutional or administrative changes in which even a shade of political significance or implication could be detected. (As a matter of fact, things worked out that way, as a rule.) There was no wish to subject the libraries to such a fate. And although during the first weeks of the German occupation some naïve souls, impressed by the seemingly endless series of German military and diplomatic successes, felt the pre-war days as an era that was finally ended, there was no general movement in the country by any party concerned to create "the" public library some of them had been dreaming of for years. To be sure, some new town councils took the initiative in establishing or reorganizing the local public library service, but these remained purely local affairs; the state administration never attempted a nation-wide change in the pre-war state of affairs.

Sensing that the end of the war might bring about the opening of a public library in every sizable town, the director of the Antwerp Public Libraries opened a school to train the personnel to staff these new institutions. At about the same time a school was founded in Liège. Both these schools were administered by the city authorities and run in close association with the local public library; two others, opened in Brussels in 1942 and 1943, were independent enterprises. As a matter of fact, the title of "school" is rather ambitious and misleading for all of these, since they offer no more than a two-year course on two evenings each week or on Saturday—a total of six hours a week. They are entitled to claim that they afford young people the opportunity of familiarizing themselves with the techniques of library work and of obtaining at least some superficial notions about a wide range of subjects; there seems to be some doubt, however, about the validity of their claim to train the men and women who will hold the more important positions in our existing or future public libraries.

THE LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

Before the war there were three relatively important library associations. One has been for years a section of the Association des Conservateurs d'Archives, de Bibliothèques, et de Musées in Brussels. The second is a federation of Catholic "popular" libraries (Algemeen Verbond van Katholieke Boekerijen). This organization is very active in the bibliographical field and has edited *Boekengids* in Antwerp since 1922. The third group is the Vlaamsche Vereeniging van Bibliotheecarissen en Bibliotheekbeambten. The first issue of the bulletin of this association, *De Bibliotheekgids*, also dates from 1922.

In order to prevent any interference on the part of the Germans, none of these associations held any public meeting during the occupation, although the German *Verwaltungsrat*, who supervised our library world, repeatedly urged some members to insist upon organizing a meeting. The Brussels association stopped editing its bulletin immediately after the invasion; *Boekengids* and *De Bibliotheekgids* were continued. In April, 1942, *Boekengids* was suppressed by the Germans. The pretext was the paper shortage; as a matter of fact, the measure was a result of the refusal of the editor to change the pre-war policy of the journal and to propagandize the "new order." Since preventive censorship was not applied on books, the editor of the suppressed *Boekengids* brought out his bibliographical guide in book form in October, 1942, under the title *Boekenooft 1942* ("1942 book harvest"). This was practically a cumulative bibliographical list for the first six months of that year. The size of the book, the paper, the types used, and numbering of the book reviews were the same as those of the monthly *Boekengids*. The Germans got wind of this camouflage, and on November 11, 1942 (they repeatedly picked out the anniversary of the 1918 armistice day to remind us of some less pleasant things) they issued an order to stop the diffusion of the "book" at once, confiscated all available copies, as well as the editor's paper stock, and ordered all copies that had been sold or sent to subscribers or to book-dealers to be turned over to the *Propagandastaffel* in Antwerp. Needless to say, they soon realized that this last point on their program could not be executed. Later on, three issues of a reading guide were sent to book-dealers and to librarians of the libraries affiliated with the federation. After the suppression of *Boekengids*, the

editors of *De Bibliotheekgids* decided to discontinue publishing that journal.

SUMMARY

I do not think it is an exaggeration to estimate the material losses of our scholarly libraries as a whole at about one-fifth of their holdings. Much has been done to fill this gap and to fill in the lacunae resulting from the fact that for five years we were completely shut off from the outside world. Unlike American librarians and scientists, we were not so fortunate as to have at our disposal an agency and organization equipped to diffuse regularly on a large scale photostat reprints of the war issues of hundreds of scientific journals the original copies of which did not reach us. Casual information on the title of an English or American publication, trickling in via a correspondent of a learned journal in a neutral country, was about the only news of the scientific activity going on beyond the Atlantic Wall.

Remarkable has been the indomitable spirit of the librarians to tackle at once the problem of building again a new collection, whether the devastation of their libraries occurred in 1940 or in 1944; remarkable their constant efforts to safeguard the treasures which were intrusted to their care. Remarkable also was their quiet courage in the face of difficulties, hard for an outsider to realize, in keeping their libraries open and giving service to their public. The war could not even stop our work on planning new buildings for our national library or for the State University in Liège. The first and main thing we had to do was to try to the best of our abilities to survive as a free nation of free men and free women and to this end to keep physically and mentally sound. In this task the libraries, whether small popular libraries or large research centers, did their part.

THE LIBRARIES OF THE NETHERLANDS DURING AND AFTER THE WAR¹

L. BRUMMEL

WHEN, as a result of the bombing of Rotterdam on May 14, 1940, the Netherlands had to capitulate to German force, the occupying power found a library system which in many respects was well organized. Even in German professional circles it had been declared, not so very many years before, that in important aspects this organization was superior to that of the Germans.² Perhaps it will be well to outline this library system briefly before passing on to a narration of the experiences that followed during the occupation.

Even though a world-renowned library has been preserved in the Library at Zutphen, which in its equipment harks back to the Middle Ages, yet in general it can be said that the foremost scholarly libraries of the Netherlands date from the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The library of the University of Leyden dates from 1587; those of the Utrecht and Amsterdam universities began in 1584 and 1578 as city libraries, becoming university and athenaeum libraries in 1634 and 1631, respectively, while the library of the University of Groningen was founded in 1615, a year after the university itself. The Royal Library, the central national library in The Hague, is of more recent date, having been established in 1798.

¹ Translated from the Dutch by Frederick Weze-man.

² Walter Menn, "Die wissenschaftlichen Bibliotheken Hollands," *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, XLVII (1930), 183.

With the exception of a few city libraries which also date from the sixteenth century, such as those of Deventer and Haarlem, practically all the remaining libraries were founded later. A few, such as the library of the Technical University and the provincial libraries of Friesland and Zeeland, date from the middle of the nineteenth century, but the majority are still more recent; for example, more than eighty public libraries originated for the most part in the twentieth century, as did the libraries of the Catholic University at Nymegen, the Economic University at Rotterdam, and the Peace Palace at The Hague.

Between all these libraries, so varied in age and organization, there exists close co-operation, which makes up in great part for the lack of a large library with millions of volumes. It is remarkable that the well-knit organization of the entire library system of the Netherlands, on the whole, dates from the period 1920-40—a period which, marked off by two world wars and plagued by two crises, was certainly not noted for an atmosphere wherein cultural institutions could develop rapidly and unhindered.

In the first place, mention must be made of the interlibrary loan system, which, although it had been in existence a long time, received its greatest impetus from the establishment at the Royal Library in 1922 of a union catalog, in which is represented the holdings of more than forty libraries, including all the university libraries. The number of titles in this catalog can be estimated at close

to two million. Because the Royal Library, the university libraries, and other large libraries not only maintain an interlibrary loan system with each other and with other libraries but also lend books to individuals who are known to the lending library, it has become possible by means of the union catalog to send any request that cannot be met by the Royal Library to a library which does possess the desired books, thereby making available within a few days a great percentage of the scholarly literature of our country to those who have need of it.

The sphere of operation of these scholarly libraries was extended by strong co-operative arrangements with the public libraries. In 1921, by a statutory regulation in connection with financial support from the state, province, and city for public libraries, the foundation was laid upon which could be created an adequate system of providing literature for the public. From 1919 to 1938 the total number of public libraries increased from fifty-three with six branches to eighty-two with thirty-six branches, with total book holdings increasing from one-half million to far beyond two million, and a rise in circulation from one and a half million to almost seven million volumes. There was, however, also growth in quality. The standards of the libraries improved, and this was due in no small part to the provision of literary material by the scholarly libraries.

Through the annual library congresses and the winter meetings of the Association of Libraries, personal contacts between the officials of the public libraries and representatives of the scholarly libraries were promoted. Finally, the heads of the foremost libraries and the representatives of various groups of libraries were officially brought together by the appointment in 1922 of the Royal

Commission of Advice concerning the library system, which, under the chairmanship of the librarian of the Royal Library, concerns itself with library problems in general and tenders advice to the government.

The expansion of contacts with foreign countries was a noteworthy characteristic of the development during the period 1920-40. In 1928 an international exchange system was established at the Royal Library, which served as an agency for the exchange of government publications and scholarly publications subsidized by the government and for the acceptance of exchanges to and from the central exchange sources in various countries. This service developed so rapidly that in 1938 more than thirty-eight thousand packages were handled, compared to less than fifteen thousand in 1928. There was an urgent need for the international interlibrary loan which developed along with the international exchange. The arrangements for the interlibrary loan, planned in 1936 by the International Library Committee, were well received in the Netherlands and supported in a most generous fashion.

Such was the situation when the war came to the Netherlands in 1940. For the greater part of our country the war lasted only four days, but in that short time, particularly through the bombing of Rotterdam, various libraries of learned societies, museums, and other institutions were destroyed; among them special mention may be made of the Rotterdam Leeskabinet, the only reading society of the nineteenth century which still existed, although in a rejuvenated form. A few days after the capitulation, Middelburg became the victim of the struggle which was still being continued in Zeeland, and in the fire of May 17 very many old buildings, some dating from

the Middle Ages, were destroyed. Among these was the building, dating from 1733, which housed the provincial library of Zeeland; this library was completely destroyed with the exception of a portion which was hidden in the cellar.

After the capitulation and subsequent to the cessation of military operations, there followed a period of relative quiet, which gave the custodians of museums and libraries an opportunity to consider what steps should be taken to safeguard the treasures in their keeping. Even before the outbreak of the war the government had concerned itself with this problem. It had been decided to have a number of bombproof cellars built, and regulations had been made for the handling, transportation, and safekeeping of the valuables. In 1939, at the beginning of the war, when the Netherlands mobilized, most of the museums began to take extensive measures for the distribution of valuables to places where it was presumed that the dangers would be slight. So, for example, Rembrandt's famed "The Night Watch" was deposited in a building in Medemblik, one of the dead cities on the Zuider Zee. The libraries at that time were still limiting their measures to protective provisions within the buildings themselves. The customary precautions against air attack, which later developments proved entirely insufficient, were taken, and some parts of the collections were moved. Thus the Royal Library moved its most precious possessions to a relatively safe section of its basement, although this was in nowise bombproof.

In 1939 there were as yet no bombproof shelters, and in 1940 there was only one—that which the city of Amsterdam built, near Castricum in the province of North Holland, for its art treasures. Two days after the outbreak of the war, on

May 10, the situation in Medemblik had become so dangerous that "The Night Watch" was taken to this bombproof shelter in Castricum—a very exciting undertaking at night, especially because the painting was too large for the entrance and therefore had to be rolled up in a meadow in the neighborhood of the depository. In the summer of 1940, a few months after the cessation of hostilities, construction was begun of some underground shelters which had already been decided upon in the autumn of 1939. An inspector for art was appointed, whose duties included the protection of historically or aesthetically important buildings, as well as the protection of the possessions of museums, libraries, and archives.

The delay in the execution of these building plans to the end of the actual fighting may seem surprising, but in view of their cost and the familiar caution of the Dutch, this slow development is understandable. In choice of terrain they were guided by the consideration that it must lie within the so-called "Fortress Holland" and at the same time be a place where the ground afforded sufficient support. The only place which met these criteria was a relatively small stretch of dunes along the coast.

In order to spread the risks, two groups of shelters were built—one at Heemskerk, about five kilometers north of Ymuiden, and the other at Zandvoort, about five kilometers southwest of Haarlem. Each group consisted of two shelters separated by a distance of about two hundred yards. A covering of about one and one-third yards of heavily reinforced concrete, walls approximately one yard in thickness, and a sand cover of about thirteen yards formed the protection for the precious contents of these shelters, which varied so little in form

from the surrounding sand dunes that they could be recognized only by those who had been informed.

The arrangement of the depositories was fairly simple. An iron door opened into a narrow tunnel twenty-two yards long, at the end of which was a vault door. This door led into a vestibule, which in turn gave entrance through a vault door to the two actual storage chambers, equal in size. Each of these recesses consisted of a middle passage three yards wide with four compartments on each side, the latter measuring approximately two by two and one-half yards. In these cells the art treasures were placed in boxes or baskets, while the paintings were hung on movable steel racks furnished with strongly woven gauze. An air-conditioning unit provided for uniform humidity and temperature.

The storage chambers were ready at the beginning of 1941, and the moving of the art treasures was undertaken. This required much time and an expanded organization. The museums were the first to seize this opportunity of bringing their treasures to safety. The libraries and archives were not so hasty in this case because it was difficult to determine what should be stored and because such storage would severely hamper scholarly research. Consequently, the Royal Library was the only one which brought to the shelter at Zandvoort a number of boxes of precious manuscripts and incunabula, its condition being less favorable than that of the other libraries. About half of its possessions are stored in an imposing eighteenth-century edifice, which in the event of fire would surely be an entire loss along with all its contents. In addition to this, the library was situated in a very dangerous place in the center of The Hague, en-

circled by all sorts of German administrative agencies, and having as its next-door neighbor the district commander's headquarters. It is quite evident that under these circumstances the Royal Library was pleased to be able to place at least a small portion of its treasures in safety.

It could not be guessed then that after only a year the Germans would require the evacuation of the shelters. These had been built with the knowledge and consent of the Germans; they had knowledge of what was hidden away; and more than once high officials such as the commissioner and the chief commander in the Netherlands had visited the storage places. Toward the end of 1941, however, the Germans were not so sure of victory as they had been during the first year of the war. The bogey of the invasion changed their minds so drastically that they now demanded that the storage places which had been built with such difficulty and at such great cost should be evacuated.

It is understandable that this order caused great consternation in the museum and library world. The Germans demanded that the art treasures should be brought in short order to the eastern part of the country, behind the Maas and Yssel line. Therefore, with the greatest possible haste, a storage place for the most important items was constructed in the Saint Pietersberg, a quarry near Maastricht, where use could be made of the tunnels which had been carved out in the rock. In the early part of 1942 the most valuable paintings were taken to Limburg by special train under military protection. All remaining works of art—and among these were many very costly ones—had to be brought to safety elsewhere, for the storage place in the Saint Pietersberg was not adequate for the

contents of the four depositories in the dunes. They were taken to a place near Steenwijk in the province Overijssel, awaiting the completion of a new storage place eight kilometers northwest of Steenwijk.

This depository was altogether different from those which had been prepared in the dunes. The differences in elevation of the terrain which was under consideration in the east were negligible, so that safety was to be found not in a protective layer of sand but in the building itself. So a sort of Roman tower was built with reinforced concrete walls four and one-half yards thick and with a conical roof. At its midpoint this roof had a thickness of ten yards. The building was a two-story structure. When its construction was completed at the end of 1942, the Royal Library also brought a number of boxes with manuscripts and incunabula to this place.

But the Germans did not stop at this. They were constantly terrified by the specter of the invasion. What they had first viewed as an utter impossibility and later labeled as an irresponsible and reckless enterprise, they now began to consider as a serious threat, which would most probably be followed by action. And with the usual German thoroughness they proceeded to take the precautions which they deemed necessary. The Atlantic Wall, with everything that pertained to it, was built.

What this meant for the Dutch seacoast with its lovely dunes can hardly be understood by those who did not see the destruction close at hand. For instance, The Hague and its suburb Scheveningen, the bathing place on the North Sea, became a branch of the defense system. In view of the fact that practically everyone living within a few kilometers from the coast had to move, large parts of The

Hague were evacuated. By tearing down thousands of homes, constructing anti-tank pits, and building a concrete wall, a broad stretch straight through the city was made part of the defense system. The lovely beeches in the forest preserves of The Hague were felled, and the adjacent part of the city became a fortress surrounded by anti-tank pits with heavy bunkers.

The Royal Library was situated a quarter of a mile from these encircling fortifications. Considering that a complete evacuation of the library, even an evacuation of the eighteenth-century part of the building with its three hundred and fifty thousand books, was impossible, there was nothing left to do but to distribute parts of the collection throughout the land. Thus twenty thousand books were brought to one of the university buildings in Leyden, thirty thousand to a medieval cellar beneath the Hall of the Nobility in the parliament buildings, and, finally, forty thousand to an uninhabited castle in the province of Gelderland. This last moving took place in April, 1943. Ten months later, in February, 1944, the castle was seized by the Hermann Goering Division and had to be evacuated within three days. I shall not attempt to sketch the difficulties which this command caused the Royal Library, even though experience had taught that one need not be impressed too much by orders for immediate evacuation. I would, however, like to mention one of these difficulties: the lack of motor trucks. The few available trucks, powered by wood gas, were in very poor condition and quite unreliable.

Curiously enough, the Germans now again permitted the books to be returned to those storage places in the dunes which had been evacuated upon their

orders in 1942. Vacant two years, they were now eagerly put to use, especially because the situation was constantly becoming more dangerous, particularly along the seacoast. All sorts of archives of the government, provinces, and cities, collections of museums, hundreds of boxes with manuscripts and books of the Royal Library and the University Library of Amsterdam were brought to these cellars. Other university libraries also took precautions, although less comprehensive ones. A number of precious items of the University of Utrecht Library were brought to the basement under the cathedral tower, while in so far as possible the manuscripts of the library of the University of Leyden were also brought to safety.

Whereas the above-mentioned facts show how arbitrary the Germans could be, there is also ample evidence of their inconsistency in other spheres. For example, their regulations for the control of forbidden literature were entirely capricious. They were, however, rather moderate toward the scholarly libraries in this respect. Only those books which were very definitely opposed to Hitler and the Third Reich had to be placed under lock and key, although they could remain in the libraries. The titles also had to be eliminated from the catalog. For the Royal Library, which had a great many more of such books than the university libraries, this regulation still affected less than three hundred books. The public libraries had a much more difficult time. Although the undesirable books could also be retained, nevertheless books on psychoanalysis or books written by Jews could only be given to readers for research under unusual circumstances, and then only by permission of the director of the library. The Germans waived these regulations in the

case of scholarly libraries, because they assumed that the reading public requested books from these libraries only for study and research.

But although the regulations issued by the civilian authorities were fairly tolerant, they were constantly remanded by the regulations of local authorities, especially the *Sicherheitspolizei*. Such stupidity as occurred in one of the provincial towns, where an order was given to cut all aerial photographs from the books of the public library regardless of the country of origin, can be ascribed only to the lust for power on the part of similar little potentates. It is surprising that the German authorities at no time compiled an official list of forbidden books, although supplements to such a nonexistent list were occasionally sent to the libraries. A most amazing conglomeration of books could be found on the supplementary lists: among others, a well-known children's book which had appeared more than thirty years before and which was banned because of the description of a snowball fight between boys, presumed to represent the Germans and the Dutch. True enough, the Germans won; but the Dutch had shouted, "Long live the Queen!"

In general, however, the scholarly libraries did not experience much difficulty from such regulations. When the United States also became involved in the war, books written by American or English authors who were living in 1904 or later could no longer be sold by the book-sellers or circulated by the public libraries. The scholarly libraries never did concern themselves with this ruling and circulated such books regularly for purposes of study.

Much more serious was the plundering to which the libraries were exposed and

to which they were subjected entirely without warning. When Freemasonry was forbidden by the occupier, the library of the Masonic order was taken over at the same time and transported to Germany. The same thing happened to the library of the Theosophical Society. Since there were apparently also grievances against the Society for Psychical Research, the library of this society was removed from the University of Amsterdam Library and brought to Germany. The library of the International Institute for Social History at Amsterdam had already been sealed in the first days of the occupation. Later this library suffered the same fate as the others mentioned. One of the most serious instances of plunder was the assault on the famous Bibliotheca Rosenthaliana, the Jewish collection housed in the University of Amsterdam Library, which, after having been under seal for a long time, was finally packed in boxes and taken away when the invasion had become an accomplished fact.

What constitutes a remarkable contrast to this line of procedure is the fact that practically none of the costly possessions of government or city-owned museums, archives, or libraries were stolen. Was the enemy perhaps so convinced that all these government-owned treasures would in any event come into his possession ultimately?

This relative freedom was a piece of good fortune for the large libraries, since during the years of the occupation a veritable craze for reading developed among the public. Naturally, in the first place it was the public libraries which had to absorb the great demand, and they acquitted themselves of this tremendous task in a worthy manner, although frequently under difficult circumstances. But the scholarly libraries also

noted a rapid increase in circulation and attendance figures. This hunger for books was partly due to the fact that many intellectuals, deprived of their normal occupation, were trying to make use of their free time for studying.

It was extremely difficult for the libraries to service this flood of readers. There was continual lack of personnel because some were being taken away as prisoners of war and many others became victims of the forced labor in Germany. In proportion as the hunt for young men was constantly intensified in later years, so also the unrest which continually made itself felt more and more in the daily service became more pronounced.

This situation developed into one of dire apprehension when the fighting line pushed up to and over the borders of our country. In the beginning of September, 1944, the libraries suspended mail shipments. On September 5 we experienced that remarkable phenomenon which will probably survive in our national history as *De Dolle Dinsdag* ("Mad Tuesday"). The wildest rumors circulated through our country, and in practically all cities in the west it was believed that the Allies would make their appearance that very day. The Dutch Nazis and also many Germans fled frantically, and everywhere people displaying flowers stood along the way. And what a disillusionment when we came to the realization on the following day that our rescuers had scarcely crossed the borders. What a time of affliction then commenced! The Germans now dropped all reserve, especially a few days later when the railroad strike began. As a result of this, all interurban service was discontinued, and this was soon followed by the termination of all streetcar service in the cities due to a shortage of coal. This cancellation of the means of transporta-

tion was felt all the more because all bicycles were systematically confiscated by the Germans. The isolation became complete through the discontinuance of almost all telephone service along a wide coastal area. Then came the dearth of food and a man hunt in the grand style, in which the cities were segregated and all men, even those quite advanced in age, were taken away in order to perform slave labor for the hostile army. As a result, the number who went underground became fantastically large and the Royal Library found it necessary to close its doors in November, 1944, because of lack of personnel.

Everywhere in the west the libraries had similar difficulties, except that the public libraries, being staffed mainly by women, suffered less from the lack of personnel. The want of transportation, food, coal, gas, electricity, and telephone, however, made life so arduous that generally it was not possible to permit the personnel to work more than half a day.

The situation was entirely different in the southern provinces of Brabant, Limburg, and Zeeland, and afterward in the eastern and northern provinces, since they were the scene of the struggle. It frequently happened that libraries were damaged in those places where there was severe fighting. The public libraries at Nymegen in Gelderland and Venlo in Limburg were entirely destroyed, and others suffered severe losses. At the time of the grand assault by the Allied paratroopers on the bridges at Arnhem and Nymegen, the Germans retreated and put the torch to many buildings, including several of the Catholic University. The reading-room of the university library with six to seven thousand standard works was ruined, while the philosophy, psychology, theology, history, and history of art departments were entirely

destroyed by fire, with the loss of more than twenty-six thousand volumes. In Wageningen also, where the Agricultural University was located, some of the departments suffered great damage, the library of the department of rural economy being entirely destroyed by fire.

The western part of the country, however, also suffered war damage, even though there was no fighting there. In and around The Hague many V-1 and V-2 projectiles were released, which all too often misfired and then brought death and destruction to the city. Air attacks by the Allies naturally followed and in turn were accompanied by new dangers. A bomb fell within twenty yards of the Royal Library, shattering three hundred windows in this building alone. On March 3, 1945, a district of The Hague was destroyed by heavy bombing, and the resulting fire caused much damage even as far as the center of the city; it was only due to a favorable direction of the wind that the Royal Library was spared.

Fortunately, the western provinces were exempted from joining in defense of the "Fortress Holland," a project which the Germans had at first been considering seriously. On May 7 the final liberation had become an accomplished fact for the famished west. This meant that the many libraries located there came through the war without damage worth mentioning; these included the Royal Library, the libraries of the universities of Amsterdam, Leyden, and Utrecht, the library of the Technical University at Delft, that of the Economic University at Rotterdam, and many others. The restoration of our cultural life could be initiated with a library system which in the main was intact.

In spite of all this, reconstruction was difficult enough. After the first week of

enthusiasm because of the liberation, the people of the Netherlands had to face the bitter reality of an unbelievable poverty. There was a complete lack of everything. In the west, in spite of the help of the Swedish Red Cross, foodstuffs had practically disappeared. In the very week of the regained freedom, the official weekly ration was four hundred grams of bread and one kilogram of potato per person. The stirring gesture of dropping food from American and English bombers during the last days of April was made none too soon. Even though, from the standpoint of food, the situation was better in the east of the country, in other respects conditions were very bad, at least in some sections of that area. It was true of the entire country that transportation was completely disorganized, for almost all bridges over the rivers had been destroyed, the greatest portion of the railroad equipment had been stolen, and all telephonic communication was disrupted. Those who were fortunate enough to possess an auto or a bicycle could in most instances not make use of them because of lack of tires or gasoline. There was no coal at all, so that neither gas nor electricity was available for weeks. There were no raw materials, no tools, no machinery—in short, none of the things necessary for reconstruction. On every hand one saw the strange and discouraging phenomenon of thousands ready to go to work but doomed to idleness because of technical difficulties.

No wonder that under these circumstances it was difficult to revive operations in the library world. With an incomplete and undernourished staff there was little with which to begin, and it was months before things were somewhat back to normal in this respect. For many libraries the first necessity was the return of all evacuated possessions, and

this in turn again had to wait on the availability of the trucks necessary for transport. The return of the treasures of the Royal Library began in July and was not completed until the very end of the year, at which time a hundred thousand books had been brought back.

In the meantime, in the autumn of 1945, the interlibrary loan system, as well as loans to individuals throughout the entire country, was again instituted. An important aid to this interlibrary loan had come into existence when in addition to the union catalog in the Royal Library there was established a separate union catalog of periodicals, which gave an accurate account concerning the particular journals or serials held by each library. This catalog, which serves a very useful purpose and is regularly maintained, takes its place along with the exhibits which were established by many libraries during the period of occupation as evidence of the enthusiasm and energy of the librarians of the Netherlands, which could not be dampened even in the difficult years of the occupation.

Naturally, an especially difficult point for the scholarly libraries was the restoration of contact with the outside world, and in connection with this the addition to the book stock of the different publications of 1940-45. This latter task was just as much a problem for the public libraries, for after the years of isolation and one-sided propaganda there was on every hand a desire on the part of our people for books which furnished a different view and breathed a spirit contrary to that of German literature. There was, at first especially, a longing to learn about the happenings of the war from the other point of view and thereby to form a better judgment concerning all the facts than had formerly been possible from the German lies, and soon the voice of the

scholarly worker, who wanted to be enlightened concerning the progress of scholarship during the last five years, was also heard.

In order to satisfy these needs many obstacles had to be overcome. In the first place, all bibliographical tools were wanting, so that all sorts of haphazard aids had to be employed in order to prepare lists of desiderata. Furthermore, it was impossible to order books as long as the exchange with other countries was not operating. And, finally, it was desirable in view of our deplorable financial situation that a stated sum in foreign exchange should be made available for the purchase of books and that detailed regulations for the spending of these monies should be set up. This all took time; it was not until the beginning of November that English books could be ordered from dealers, while orders for American books could not be placed until the early part of December.

Fortunately, this does not imply that from May to December we were deprived of all books. Our friends abroad spontaneously came to our aid in a heartening fashion. Lost contacts were renewed with little difficulty, and at a time when we were too much concerned with our own troubles to renew our relationships abroad, we received the most touching evidences of co-operation. I remember vividly my emotions when very soon after our liberation I received my first letter in many years from America. It was a very warm letter from my friend John Marshall, the associate director of the humanities at the Rockefeller Foundation. It was not very long before the most unequivocal proofs of actual help came from England as well as from America. I shall mention just a few by way of example, without meaning thereby in any way to slight the many others.

As early as the summer of 1945 we received information that the Help Holland Council of England was willing to present to the foremost public libraries of our country as many as fourteen thousand books on all subjects, in the main designed for the general reader. Indeed, shortly thereafter a great stream of books began to arrive, and it was possible to place, in many centers of our country, a representative collection of English books, some from the war years and others of earlier date. The Help Holland Council, believing that this was not yet sufficient, in the spring of 1946 began to provide books for the scholarly libraries, an act which was of great benefit to the libraries of universities and other institutions of higher learning and the Royal Library. In this way thousands of books, in many cases costly volumes, were sent to our country.

Very important also was the extensive shipment of the Interallied Book Centre in London to our country toward the end of 1946. At a rough estimate, this collection of books comprises about forty thousand volumes, which are now being sorted by the Royal Library and distributed among the various libraries of this country.

We received exceptionally expert and efficient help from the United States. The American Library Association, supported by the Rockefeller Foundation, did an excellent job of making selections from the scholarly literature which appeared in America during the war years and prepared a number of standard collections for the various war-torn countries. Our country also received such a collection, which was distributed among the scholarly libraries by a committee appointed for that purpose.

American help in connection with periodicals was also very important. Sup-

ported by the Rockefeller Foundation, the American Library Association subscribed to more than three hundred and fifty American periodicals, including several copies of each, and this enabled the scholarly libraries of the Netherlands to fill in or to acquire a number of journals dating from the war years, which otherwise most probably would not have been available. These periodicals constituted a most welcome and most urgently needed addition to the number of journals, to be mentioned later, which were purchased by the Netherlands government in London during the war years.

I would like to take note here of the unusually friendly way in which the people of the United States supplied this help. It was my privilege when in the United States to make arrangements for the handling of this material, and I retain the most pleasant memories of the discussions that were held. The Royal Library was helped in a special way by an agreement with the Library of Congress whereby the two libraries made considerable purchases of Dutch and American books, respectively, for each other's benefit, so that a sort of exchange without the usual difficulties of currency placed the Royal Library in possession of a large collection of scholarly literature on all subjects.

The adoption of the Netherlands universities by the Swiss universities was a source of help which benefited the university libraries in particular, though the assistance included all spheres of university life. In recent years Swiss publishing has expanded noticeably and Swiss books constitute a desirable addition to our libraries, so that a gift of Swiss books was a welcome acquisition for the university libraries. But this was not the full extent of help from Switzerland. Through the so-called "Don Suisse" a considerable

sum was made available for the purchase of Swiss books for the scholarly libraries, with the understanding that they have their own choice in the matter.

And these are only a few important examples of the assistance offered from every side. France and such institutions as the British Council, the American Book Center, and the American Relief for Holland ought to have been mentioned, along with many others, were it not for the limited space to which this article must be restricted.

Mention should also be made of what the Netherlands government in London accomplished during the war years regarding the provision of literature for our country after the occupation. The Netherlands Government Commission for Scientific Documentation, established for this purpose in 1942, subscribed to approximately eight hundred periodicals, in many cases for more than one copy, so that the total number of subscriptions was about three thousand. Moreover, the government of the Netherlands also made grateful use of the activities of the British Council, which made up lists of the best English books and purchased a certain number of these for the Allied countries. The Netherlands also had a seat on the Commission of Ministers of Education representing various Allied countries and purchased five copies of each available book. A commission was appointed by the Royal Netherlands Academy of Sciences for the distribution of the books and periodicals, and this distribution is now complete. There is surely much reason for gratitude that so many sets of English and American periodicals were in this way spared for our country. Subscriptions were also taken for a number of periodicals from Australia, South Africa, and British India.

So then, through our own initiative as well as by the help of friendly countries, very much has been done to overcome the handicap caused by five or six years of shortage. And yet, in spite of our gratitude, we are not satisfied and have no right to be. For the gaps are still too numerous and too annoying. The work of the Netherlands Government Commission did not begin until 1942, and at about this time also the purchase of books and periodicals in the United States was undertaken. The result is that in many instances the years 1940-41 are incomplete or lacking in duplicates, so that gaps continue to exist in the holdings of our libraries. The stream of books which since the last month of 1945 flowed into our larger libraries in an almost unbroken continuity cannot cause us to forget that many books are still out of print and perhaps will remain unobtainable for several years. Also, many periodicals of the war years were not purchased by the government of the Netherlands or by the A.L.A., and they will more than likely remain wanting in our libraries.

Even so, the conditions in the large scholarly libraries are relatively favorable. Provisions for the smaller libraries, however, can be made only in isolated instances, and numerous public libraries up to this time have received practically no English or American books. It is true that these could be purchased from the book-sellers, but the price of these books, measured by our standards, is always high, and this is the more noticeable now because of the very unfavorable exchange for our country. This is a great handicap for the individual; in addition, the book trade must first satisfy the demands of the scholarly libraries. The number of available books and periodicals remains far below normal, so that the students in most cases must do with-

out their textbooks, and frequently, as was the case in the seventeenth century, they must prepare their own books from the professor's dictation.

The lack of foreign books is felt all the more because of the difficult situation regarding Dutch books. During the German occupation the majority of Dutch periodicals had already been discontinued on account of the increasingly stringent paper shortage, and the number of books being printed had become pitifully small. The unsettled condition during the last eight months had naturally been accompanied by a complete stagnation of industry, so that not a single book or periodical was being printed. The small stock of paper which became available after the liberation was used first of all, as one would expect, for papers, pamphlets, and books about the war and personal reminiscences of concentration camps and of the underground fight, in order to satisfy the hunger for news unadulterated by German lies. The lack of books and textbooks became still more serious because of the international paper shortage and because of the lack of fuel. It is apparent that gradually there will be some improvement, but this will require an extensive period of time.

Regarding books, then, the situation in the Netherlands is by no means encouraging, and the libraries are only too well aware of the difficulties now present and to come. However, they are not disheartened and are prepared to make headway against these difficulties. To be able to do constructive work unmolested at this time, after the years of occupation, is such a pleasure that this alone gives us the strength to achieve more than one would otherwise deem possible. For without the unshakable faith in a new future it would surely be impossible

for the numerous public libraries, struggling as they are with an unheard-of lack of personnel, with a book stock which requires drastic additions and replacements, with buildings which have been greatly damaged and not yet repaired, to resume excellent service for a reading public which numerically is much larger than before the war, although the enormous figures of the occupation years will never again be reached. Even those libraries which literally lost everything, such as the Public Library of Nymegen, have again gone to work with the same energy and devotion as before and are now already able to demonstrate unusual results.

Although the circumstances and the difficulties are different for the scholarly libraries than for the public libraries, nonetheless their problems are also numerous and are being met energetically. Never has the attendance of the students at our universities been so great as it is now, and never were the latter less well equipped to give these young people what they expect. After the occupation the shortage of professors was discouraging, the equipment of laboratories, clinics, hospitals, and the like was entirely insufficient, and there was a total lack of textbooks and handbooks, while at the same time there was prevalent among teachers everywhere an awareness of the fact that after five years of isolation they were no longer well posted in the fields of scholarship. With united strength we are now doing our utmost to make the Netherlands once again worthy of the place of honor formerly occupied by our country in the world of scholarship, and it is quite evident that in this connection a great task awaits the libraries of the universities and graduate schools. This is a big order, considering the restricted budgets, the unavoidable exchange regula-

tions caused by our poverty, the limited opportunities for import, the increased prices of books, both domestic and foreign, and the task of regaining the loss incurred during five or six years with the insufficient staff that characterizes all libraries. But it is a problem for which a solution will undoubtedly be found, even when, in addition to the general difficulties, the physical damage has been as serious as in the case of the library of the Catholic University at Nymegen.

The Royal Library, since it is the central scholarly library, assumes a peculiar place in the restoration of scholarship in our country. It is not directly concerned with the difficulties of the universities and graduate schools, but the libraries of these institutions regularly make requests for material in the humanities from the Royal Library, and therefore it is obligatory for it to be well equipped again in that field. The hindrances are naturally the same for the Royal Library as for the other libraries. Since the liberation it has co-operated with these libraries in providing literature and serves as a central agent for the shipments from England and America, which are then distributed among the scholarly libraries.

Therefore, in spite of the difficulties, there is activity and renewed life everywhere. The libraries of the Netherlands are aware of the fact that a new period is dawning, and they are prepared to take an active role therein. Problems such as the training of personnel for scholarly libraries, the building of a central depository (somewhat like the Depository Library in Boston), and the introduction of the legal deposit have been discussed in detail since the occupation years and require solution in the near future. The low salaries of library personnel make it still more difficult to fill the various posi-

tions properly, so that improvement is urgently needed. In the case of the public libraries there are prospects that the matter will soon be remedied, and the scholarly libraries will have to follow suit in spite of the impoverishment of the country's finances. Whether or not this condition will be a hindrance in the extension of library buildings, which has been an objective for many years, remains to be seen. A new chapter in the history of our library system has begun during the years of occupation with the organization of an association of special libraries concerned with industry and trade. A training course has now been established for the personnel of these libraries, which should have an acknowledged place similar to that held by the training course for personnel of public libraries.

The scholarly libraries will surely follow a new trend in methods of reproduction. Up to this time preference has been given to the photocopy; in the future, microfilm will assume an important place. Microfilm will be used to fill in the gaps in our libraries and will be sent to foreign libraries when the literature desired by the libraries is out of print. The microfilm reading machine, which because of the liberal interlibrary loan policy and the short distances between the large libraries in the Netherlands

scholarly library system is now unknown, will surely be introduced.

Because of the deterioration of German librarianship, the orientation of the Netherlands libraries will undergo a change, as will also be the case in the orientation of the scholarship of the Netherlands. The relations with England and America are becoming extremely important for our culture, and the Netherlands scholarly libraries will frequently have to call on the English and American libraries. Whereas in England the international interlibrary loan was well organized before the war, the American libraries will find themselves face to face with a new situation in which, once again, the microfilm will play an important part.

And so I should like to conclude my review with a declaration of trust that our libraries shall not call in vain for the help of sister institutions in America, and that a spirit of co-operation will develop between the two groups which in its own way can contribute a share to the new and better world which we are trying to bring about after the misery of this war. The American libraries, which perhaps more than those in any other country are conscious of being the custodians and exponents of culture, can be assured that the libraries of the Netherlands are participating in their idealism with an equal amount of enthusiasm.

NORWEGIAN LIBRARIES DURING THE WAR A PERSONAL NARRATIVE

WILHELM MUNTHE

I AM afraid my American readers may be disappointed by what I am going to tell them. This is not a history of horrors, devastations, and deeds of heroism. It is only a plain narrative of the library front during the German occupation, and I shall try to tell it as objectively as I can—*sine ira et studio*.

But one thought I hope to awake among my readers: What a precious thing intellectual freedom is! We Norwegians were accustomed to accept the freedom to think, write, and read as an inborn, inalienable human right. We seldom gave it much thought. We simply took it for granted.

Well, we had of course heard about *Gleichschaltung* in the Third Reich; we had read about books burned, about libraries purged, about propaganda literature as enforced reading or, at least, as shelf-filling in German libraries. We had heard rumors of teachers discharged and librarians dismissed. But we put it out of our minds: It can't happen here!

We came to learn that such things could happen even in Nordic countries. But the library front held against the impact of the Nazi regime, because the librarians were in such close contact with the resistant spirit of the Norwegian people. We learned that the stronger the pressure, the stronger the counterpressure will grow.

THE BEGINNING

The German invasion in Norway on April 9, 1940, was planned as a clandestine surprise assault on a neutral coun-

try, just like the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. It succeeded only too well. Here I can tell of my personal reaction. I was awakened at dawn in my home, in a suburb of Oslo, by the noise of motors. The sky was full of sooty bombers with swastika emblems. We heard the distant sputterings from anti-aircraft batteries and saw dots of smoke in the air. My son and I raced to the University Library some two miles away—there were no streetcars running yet. Some of the staff turned up gradually, and we at once began to bring the archives and catalogs down into the cellars, where emergency receptacles stood in readiness for such an event. We feared that the city might be bombed. But, fortunately, it did not come to that. After some hours, however, we saw an endless procession of German élite soldiers marching in from the airport. We kept the doors shut and only had a back door open for return of books. The troops were quartered in the schools, and even in the National Theater straw for beds was brought in.

Next day a troop came marching into the library and stacked their guns in pyramids in the vestibule, while a lieutenant, a sergeant, and two men came upstairs and asked for the director. The lieutenant clicked his heels and presented an order of requisition. "But it is against the Hague Convention to use cultural institutions for military purposes!"—"I don't know anything about that," the lieutenant retorted. "We have just taken over the National Theater." I showed him the stacks: "But you can't possibly

put soldiers on the floor of these narrow aisles?"—"Oh, they will lie quite comfortable on straw, and they will have something to read just at hand," he answered with something like a smile. I tried a last despairing defense: "But you know: Smoking is strictly prohibited. We have exactly the same rules as in the German libraries."—"Ach was? Ist das so. Ich kann meinen Kerls doch nicht zumuten, dass sie keine Zigarette anzünden dürfen. Nah, dann fällt es aus—vorläufig." He turned on his heel, handed the requisition order to the sergeant, and off they marched. A characteristic example of how German officials may trample on treaties but stumble over a paragraph! But we had a foreboding that they would come back another day. And so they did, but that was two years later.

The University Library of Oslo is not only by far the largest library in our country, it is *de facto* our national library, with copy privileges for all Norwegian printings. With a stock of more than a million volumes, it acts as the great central lending library for research. Its staff numbers about eighty persons. The heavy building with walls one meter thick of rough granite blocks at a commanding site on a busy traffic intersection makes it only too conspicuous from a strategic point of view. In case of street fights it would only be a question of time which party would get hold of the building. A new wing with seven book tiers, with a large new reading-room for two hundred students on the top, was just under construction. For all these reasons we felt that the library would be constantly in the search light.

NAZI ADMINISTRATION

The first German officials we came into contact with were, however, on the whole, decent people, straightforward

front officers. They only wished to avoid trouble with the civilian authorities of the country. But, occasionally, they would warn us: "*Warten Sie nur, bis die Herren in Lackstiefeln kommen!*" And as the occupation went on, we got to know the lesser sorts, the officers of the *étape* (behind the front) and the thousands of civil officials with their dangling daggers—not to speak of the sinister "Greens," the Gestapo.

"Der Herr Reichskommissar" Terboven turned up and took over the civil administration of the occupied parts of our country. He at once set up an immense organization. The libraries came under the control of the Schul- und Bildungsabteilung. Its chief was the Ministerialrat Huhnhauser—an urbane and ingratiating gentleman on the surface, but unreliable and arrogant. He was not at all one of the worst, but of course he wanted to organize according to the Prussian pattern and to have a hand in everything. Fortunately, he had to compete with the Propaganda-Abteilung, which often crossed his plans, and by and by we learned to find our own way between the rivals. These two we had to accept as actual authorities; but when the Norwegian traitor Quisling put up his puppet government, we did our utmost to keep him and his partisans out of the performance. And, as a matter of fact, neither he nor his minister of education ever came inside the University Library, and we never yielded to their numerous demands of arranging propaganda exhibitions or participating in other political activities.

For the public and school libraries the situation was more difficult. They were under the supervision of a special government office, whose head was the well-known librarian Arne Kildal. He tried to keep the administration running along

the old lines, but when the new aggressive propaganda ministry, Kulturog Folkeopplysningsdepartementet, insisted on taking over his bureau, he resigned his post in October, 1941. During the rest of the occupation Mr. Kildal worked secretly in a study in the University Library, where he participated in the underground movement and wrote a history of literary events (*Presse- og litteraturfronten under okkupasjonen, 1940-45* [Oslo, 1945]).

His staff also resigned or disappeared. As his successor was appointed a certain Peter Näumann, who, after two unsuccessful attempts as library assistant, had become editor of a plumber's monthly. He was not one of the worst Nazis. He was insolent and aggressive as long as the Germans were victorious, but yielding and ingratiating after El Alamein.

After Mr. Kildal had left, the Library Bureau became almost isolated in the library world, and the periodical *Bok og Bibliotek* languished. The old contributors refused to co-operate, and many issues contained only reports and book lists besides Mr. Näumann's editorial. Instead of the eight usual issues, only three appeared in 1943, and in 1944 only one. And then it stopped. But to outward appearance everything went gloriously. The Library Bureau moved into a long file of new offices, where a host of assistants, of whom hardly two had any library experience, distributed greatly increased state subsidies. But much of that was given in the form of an abundant number of copies of propaganda books. New central county libraries were also framed, on paper. But owing to inexperience and lack of co-operation most of the plans were never put into effect. It was an office in complete disorder and confusion that Mr. Kildal found when he and his old staff took over the adminis-

tration again on the capitulation day, May 8, 1945.

As time went on, the German Library Office under the Reichskommissariat of course developed into a competing administration. Its leader was Bibliotheksrat Dr. Fritz Meyn, of whom I shall have more to say later. With usual German systematic thoroughness, he made a complete file of all public libraries and their personnel, inspected them on regular visits all over the country, confiscated *unerwünschtes Schrifttum*, and sent an increasing stream of modern German fiction and other propaganda literature to them. When he discovered that the public either could not or would not read these German books, the Reichskommissariat started an extensive publishing business with Norwegian translations of them. Even the smallest and remotest parish library received lists, on which it had only to check the titles of the books with which it wished to be endowed. It was a generous munificence—which of course eventually was charged to our account. However, you can lead a horse to water, but you cannot make it drink. Norwegian library patrons refused to borrow the books—and now most of them have gone back to the paper mills.

CENSORSHIP

In the first days after the invasion I had placed the most challenging Hitler biographies and other anti-Nazi literature in safety and removed their cards from the public catalog. The first German controller, who did not understand much of his job, found nothing. In September, 1940, however, the Reichskommissar issued an ordinance forbidding bookstores and libraries to exhibit, sell, or lend any anti-German, anti-Nazi, Marxist, pacifistic, or Jewish literature. An accompanying typewritten list—ap-

parently prepared in a hurry by illiterate persons—contained some hundred German authors and a score of publishers whose publications *ipso facto* were prohibited, regardless of their contents. Prohibited also were all books published after September 1, 1939, in states at war with Germany.

But the next blow was more of a catastrophe. In October, 1940, the minister of police sent telegraphic orders to all police masters to confiscate and remove all anti-Nazi literature in the possession of publishers, book-sellers, newsstands, and libraries. Most of it was to be sent to a book center in Oslo.

Now things had taken a dangerous turn for the libraries. Mr. Kildal and I, even though we did not like it, had to go to the Kulturdepartement, where we appealed to what common sense was left in them and asked them to curb the police raid as far as libraries were concerned. We succeeded only partially. The order was postponed for the time being, but in many places the police had already broken into the libraries and taken books away in carloads. (Many of these have been rediscovered in the process of cleaning out Nazi offices. The books were simply thrown and stuffed into rooms and closets and the key turned in the door.)

The negotiations with the Kulturdepartement resulted in an arrangement that the questionable books need not be removed from research libraries but must be kept in locked rooms. Later this arrangement was extended also to seventeen public libraries. But then the Germans began meddling and required that all such books should be withdrawn from use even in scholarly libraries. Some professors advocated that this request should be categorically refused as an encroachment upon the liberty of research. However, such a protest would probably

only have provoked a sequestration of the University Library, and to librarians it seemed more important to save the books for the future. Eventually we came to an agreement. I made myself personally responsible that the prohibited books should be lent only for scholarly use in our reading-room. The arrangement worked well. Every applicant got the books he wanted except two suspicious-looking men who probably were *agents provocateurs*. Of course, it was a special pleasure to deny the loan of these books to Norwegian-Nazi authorities, referring them to the Germans. I am afraid that a casual check of our literary concentration camp would have found many suspicious gaps on the shelves—especially under "Churchill"—but we never had any inspection. And not a single book was confiscated.

In other libraries the police made sporadic raids. In the public library of Rjukan they boasted of a grand spoil of Marxist documents and literature. And we experienced many examples of sheer vandalism. The private book collections of refugees, for instance, were brought to the concentration camps of Grini and used as rubbish in drainage ditches. When I, after the liberation in 1945, caused these ditches to be dug out, we found tons of books, but not a single one in usable condition. Other private collections were brought to harbor storehouses for export to Germany or to other localities. After the liberation we brought enormous masses of such ownerless books together in the University Library, where we instituted a sort of book clearing-house. But thousands of volumes without the owners' names could never be identified and reclaimed.

Often during the occupation we were fortunate enough to be able to prevent such confiscations, and several libraries

of exiled professors and other scholars found a secret harbor in the University Library, the largest being that of the historian, Dr. Koht, minister of foreign affairs. It weighed eighteen tons. I also succeeded in saving the excellent historical library of our famous author Sigrid Undset in Lillehammer by issuing a somewhat debatable statement that she had intended to bequeath it to the Library of the Royal Society of Sciences in Trondheim, where her father had been a curator of antiquities.

Not so fortunate was my intervention to rescue the old library of the Military Academy from being incorporated in the German central military library in the castle of Akershus. The library, the nucleus of which was a fine private collection of eighteenth-century books, was not taken by the Germans, but it was later destroyed by a suspicious fire in the old royal Palais. It was in vain also that I sent a protest against the splitting-up and partial destruction of the Parliament Library. The librarian has, since the liberation, done his best to trace and bring back some of the collections.

INDEX OF PROHIBITED BOOKS

In October, 1940, I was asked by the Kulturdepartement to act as chairman of a committee of three for censoring Norwegian literature. I told them that I was completely incompetent for such a job, that my official obligation in a scholarly library had for many years been quite the contrary: never to let political views interfere with book selection. Eventually the question of my candidacy was dropped, but the other two gentlemen—one a former provincial merchant and editor of *Ragnarok*, an extreme Nazi monthly, and the other a broken publisher—installed themselves in the University Library with an order to me from

the Minister to furnish them with all the books they wished to inspect for setting up an index of prohibited literature. In my reply I—perhaps a bit sarcastically—warned them that the effect might be the contrary of that desired and told them the old story of the Liverpool librarian who, having hit upon the device of indicating improper books by an asterisk, was painfully surprised when he found that the public rushed for them instead of avoiding them.

The gentlemen, however, reassured me: The books would get no asterisks, but merely disappear from shelves and catalogs—in a way, be *spurlos versenkt*. No list would ever be made public. Moreover, they would never carry their duty to extremes. For instance, only a few of Sigrid Undset's books would be prohibited—just enough to give her a warning to write in another spirit in the future. Even some books, on the Irish question, of Stortingspresident C. J. Hambro would be allowed, though he was a Jew [!] and a rascal.

Apropos of the asterisks: The University Library took over this idea in its official quinquennial catalog of Norwegian literature. We gave all the prohibited books not an asterisk, since this was already used for other purposes, but the Prussian Iron Cross! I am still surprised that we escaped getting into trouble for that joke.

In no time the censors had their first index ready with some hundred titles. The police handed us the list, on which we were required to check our holdings and immediately return it with due affirmation that the books were withdrawn from use. Of course, we took a photostatic copy of it.

The next step was an ordinance, dated February 17, 1941, laying "embargo on all printings detrimental to the national

and social progress of the Norwegian people." With this ordinance in hand, the Kulturdepartement could at pleasure lay hold of any book whatever and control all new publications (three copies of which were required to be sent immediately to the department). Its decision could not be appealed in the courts. This meant more lists; the output of the presses dwindled away, while the population of our literary concentration camp increased. For the public libraries the consequences were more serious. The greater part of their modern fiction was lost to the readers.

But the remaining books were borrowed so much the more intensively. After the radios had been confiscated in the summer of 1941, reading was the only recreation and amusement in the long evenings under the blackout. Some public libraries doubled their circulation two or even three times. The bookstores were emptied. Even hardly digestible remainders were sold out, and new books were disposed of before publication, so that many provincial libraries never succeeded in getting hold of them.

Still the Kulturdepartement was not satisfied with their starving of the literature, and under the pretext of paper rationing they tried to establish a kind of preventive censorship. The publishers were instructed to give advance notice of all planned publications and to ask for the necessary quota of paper. The pretext was a challenge to our common sense. Everybody knew that there was no emergency paper situation in Norway. A great part of the German literature was printed in Norway during these last years of the war, not to speak of the monster impression of Goebbels' weekly *Das Reich*. When the Germans surrendered, a hundred and fifty thousand copies of *Mein Kampf* were on the press

in Norway, and Ministerialrat Huhn-häuser sent me from his prison an appeal to rescue forty thousand copies of his book about Goethe (adapted for the German soldiers!) from being repulped. No, the pretence of a paper emergency was too flagrant. The publishers protested, and the ordinance was buried in silence.

FATE OF INDIVIDUAL LIBRARIES

It would take us too far afield to tell the adventures of the individual libraries. The hardest afflicted was perhaps the public library of Kristiansund on the south coast. The chairman of the library board was a Nazi. He ordered all sorts of Nazi literature to be bought in great quantities and propaganda posters and pictures to be pasted on the walls. About fifteen hundred volumes were confiscated. Nevertheless, the circulation increased by 50 per cent—except for German literature, in which category it diminished 30 per cent. English books were eagerly read, although of course they were out of date and reduced in number. The librarian, Miss Reidun Johnsen, and eight assistants were imprisoned during the winter of 1944. Six of them were released after three weeks, but the librarian was held in a concentration camp until the surrender, and one assistant was sent to a prisoners' camp in Germany. The library had to close for a month and was later open only for three hours a day. The reason was, of course, suspicion of "illegal work" and assistance to the home forces. They were not the only ones in underground work. In honor of another library assistant in Trondheim, Johanna Matheson, who died in the Ravensbrück camp, the Norwegian Library Association has subscribed to a memorial fund.

Many public town and parish libraries suffered severely during the war. About

fifty parish collections and two hundred school libraries were totally destroyed, among them all in Finmark, where the German army under the retreat set fire to every house and building, from churches to boatsheds. Farther south we lost the public libraries of Bodø, Namsos, Steinkjer, Kristiansund, Molde, and Elverum.

The special and research libraries escaped with comparatively small losses. Some were taken over by the Nazis and were not treated too well, but that situation can easily be repaired. Treasures and special collections were evacuated to country churches and to old silver and copper mines.

EVACUATION

Two years before the war I had applied to the government for a grant to construct an anti-air raid strongroom for our literary treasures in the rock outside the University Library, but the minister did not like to be confronted with warfare problems just then. After the German assault on Poland in September, 1939, however, the University Library was offered bombproof shelter in the dampish casemates of a demolished fortress near the Swedish frontier, but this I declined as impracticable and unsafe. They were later taken over by the enemy for a training camp.

During the last two years of the war the air raids became more frequent and more efficient, and we had to face the possibility that our country would again become a war theater. The problem of moving our cultural treasures into relative safety grew to excessive dimensions. It was then decided to build a shelter for most of them in the old silver mines of Kongsberg, some sixty miles inland southwest of Oslo. Here, two miles in on an old drift and a thousand feet below

the surface, a capacious and lofty gallery was blasted out. Fitted with electric heating and lighting, railway tracks, and ramps, it looked like an underground station. In this shelter were gradually accumulated thousands of boxes with pieces from art galleries, historic and scientific museums, churches, etc. Here also were brought together cases containing two hundred and thirty thousand volumes from the University Library and fifty thousand volumes from the scientific library in Bergen. In the neighboring gallery the National Archives had already installed itself, with its cases arranged as open shelves in aisles like an ordinary stack. The work was going on there in a tiny office, a photostat room, and even a study-room for the public.

We felt tolerably safe here, but I must say it caused us some excitement when some months later we learned that the Germans had begun to store hundreds of automobile tires and large quantities of gasoline in a magazine on the opposite side of the same drift, only about a hundred feet away. It was our good luck that they did not have time to set fire to it.

Our experience is that it is impossible to secure safe shelters in wartime. The more care you take in preparing safe storerooms, the more risk you run that they will be occupied for military purposes. We had already felt that in the Library.

THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY IN THE DANGER ZONE

On Christmas Eve, 1941, the Stadtkommandantur of Oslo requisitioned the whole new wing, where we had just begun to move in, for the storage of military maps. The stacks had to be put at his disposition "immediately if not sooner." We protested in the name of the Hague Convention and of the practical

impossibility. We suggested other places and, one way and another, kept the negotiations dragging on for two months. But on one of the first days of March the officer in charge, a Captain Englisch [!], slapped my arm and remarked cordially: "Well, I know what sabotage is. In the Ruhr, during the French occupation, we kept trains running around for weeks without arriving at their place of destination. You have been nearly as clever as we, but now we have lost our patience. Also *Schluss!*" He was the most reasonable officer I ever had to deal with, and eventually he reduced his claim to two underground tiers, which were gradually filled with maps. I happened to see some of them. The ones I saw were of North Africa—probably propaganda for the soldiers—but most of them, I think, were military maps for an eventual assault on Sweden.

Under an English air raid, on September 25, 1942, a house belonging to the German headquarters and filled with military films went up in a blaze. Even the library was slightly damaged. This was a pretext for new requisitions. Again we protested, but ultimately we had to give them our music reading-room and adjoining stack.

In these rooms a most antipathetic "Sonderführer" Puplex (just so!) installed himself with what they called *Truppenbetreuung*—a store for civil goods for the soldiers, from oil prints of the Führer to toothbrushes. As the total floor area did not exceed three hundred meters, it could be neither necessary nor practical to set up such a tiny branch. The real reason probably was the usual German penchant for taking reprisals—or perhaps they wished to have a bit of a stronghold in the building. After some attempts at burglary, beds were put up for night watchers.

We had now two military establishments in our building and had to be more careful in our "illegal" business, which of course was going on all the time. But our contacts provided us with our daily amount of information. By eleven o'clock we would have our mimeographed morning "London News" distributed. All persons of the staff were reliable, with the exception of my temporary stenographer; fortunately she left us for a better job in the party. While military operations still went on in the northern part of Norway, we had a secret military information office in the building, and later two officers from the Norwegian general staff collected material for the history of the war. Official documents were secretly filmed, illegal material was stowed away, and working places for discharged prominent officials were arranged in quiet, almost hidden, corners of the building. It was rather a thrilling time.

Our staff decreased. Under the military operations two of them were taken German prisoners, but they were released later. As the occupation went on, three librarians who were also officers of the reserve were sent to military prison camps in Silesia, and there they had to stay until the armistice. At different times three others were arrested for illegal activities and sent to Grini, an enormous concentration camp of the worst repute. Some fled to Sweden and England. My secretary-stenographer, Mrs. Lizzie Prytz, had an eventful journey through Siberia and Japan to the United States, where she lectured on the situation in Norway after the German invasion and established contact with many of my American friends. Many of the younger men of the staff were very irregular in their duties because they served in the secret home forces.

With a personnel thus reduced we had

to organize a fire brigade, police patrols, a first-aid corps, and night watches. Gradually it was possible to equip them with steel helmets, gas masks, asbestos clothes, handbarrows, and beds. Air-raid shelters were built, and down to them we had to convey the public from the reading-rooms, often more than two hundred people, as soon as the sirens whistled—and that happened almost every second day. But there was never anything like panic. We felt sure that the Allied pilots never would purposely drop bombs on the library, even if it was used for German military stores.

Our official work went on as usual; we were even able to continue the building operations, although they proceeded very slowly. Some building material we had hidden, but almost every sack of cement and every steel beam had to be snatched away behind the backs of the Germans. But on April 10, 1945, it was possible to begin using the new reading-room with provisional furniture—in hushed silence, of course; we had to prevent the Germans from making it into a military hospital.

A GERMAN CONTROLLER

One day in the early spring of 1941 a German, Bibliotheksrat Dr. Fritz Meyn, turned up in my office and presented himself as the new controller of the Norwegian libraries. On German Bibliothekskartage before the war I had had this young colleague wheedling around me in the hope of coming to us as an exchange librarian. He had taken his doctor's degree in Norwegian literature, had compiled bibliographies of Ibsen, Bjørnson, and Hamsun, and spoke a mixture of Norwegian and Swedish. He was, of course, only too glad now to leave the Flakartillerie, where he had served as a sergeant for a year. In my reply I regret-

ted that we should now meet as enemies—this seemed to surprise him—but I hoped that we could come to a practical agreement as librarians. And, as a matter of fact, we gradually came to a *modus vivendi*. He was anxious to make himself indispensable in Norway in order to avoid return to the front and therefore embarked on a great literary propaganda in the public libraries, making records on the behavior of all librarians of any importance. But in the University Library he never meddled in the administration. On the contrary, he assisted us in the return of books borrowed by German officers. He promised never to come to us on Thursdays, when he had to wear his S.S. uniform. He had his Nazi opinions, of course, but in every other inch he was almost a gentleman. He had convinced Mr. Huhnhauser of the importance of making bibliographies of Norway in German literature and vice versa. So we shut him up all by himself in an empty office in the library and supplied him with the thousands of books he wanted to catalog—much to the discontent of the book pages! But it was better to encourage his bibliographical fads than to have him embarking on other activities.

On April 1, 1942, Dr. Meyn informed me confidentially that I would receive an official invitation, which could not be refused, to an "international" bibliographic congress in Berlin. I explained to him that I could not possibly go to Germany as long as we were at war with it. He warned me and gave me three days to think it over. When he came back on Easter Saturday, I was on leave but had instructed the secretary to tell him that I had not changed my mind. "Then I should recommend your director to pack his rucksack," said Dr. Meyn. "Does that mean Grini [the concentration camp] or Sweden?" asked the secretary,

but the German only shrugged his shoulders. Nothing happened, however. A fortnight later I met Dr. Meyn and mentioned his warning. He produced a copy of his letter of reply to the Berlin authorities, in which he said that it would be impossible for me to attend, as I must superintend the building operations just going on. "Well, Dr. Meyn, I appreciate your good intentions; but that was not my reply," I said. "But you Norwegians are so damned imprudent and stupid," he retorted angrily. "You can't understand that if you say you *will* not, then the Germans must force you to do it. But if you say you *cannot*, then they can accept the poorest excuse without losing their prestige."

On one of the last days of February, 1944, Dr. Meyn looked very sad. He had been ordered back to the front. There was no way out, even though the sixth part of his pet child, the *Norwegische Bibliographie*, was just ready for the press. Now he came to say goodbye, and he promised to send me a card, but neither I nor his secretary ever heard anything of him. From now on I had to deal directly with Ministerialrat Huhnhäuser, but, both materially and spiritually, the Germans were now on the retreat, even if we experienced some outbursts of nervousness and terror.

TWO DISASTROUS DAYS

Occasionally we would have visits from the police, who were always searching for illegal books and persons implicated in underground activities. We witnessed both arrests and narrow escapés. One of them was very dramatic. On February 9, 1944, two civil policemen came creeping in through a window to arrest a young assistant, Miss Agnes Hagelsteen. She happened to be the first person they encountered, but at their question she be-

came suspicious and replied that they would find her in the delivery office: a dark, rather small girl. Here they were kept waiting for half an hour at her empty seat, until light dawned upon the one and he asked her neighbor: "How does Miss Hagelsteen look? Is she tall and fair?"—"Oh, yes."—"With blue eyes? Charming?"—"Yes, I should say so." The policemen exchanged a meaning glance: "Damn!" and out they rushed. But she was at a safe distance by that time and escaped by the underground track over the Swedish frontier. Later she joined the Norwegian navy in England as a Wren and came back in marine uniform.

At odd intervals rumors of planned forays in the University Library would be brought to us. At such times the staff were warned against having illegal material in their desks. But nothing happened until November 30, 1943. At eleven o'clock more than a hundred Gestapo men came thundering along on motorcycles and in motor vans, surrounded the building, and put up machine guns on the street corners. The telephone was disconnected; the staff and the public were lined up in different halls and reading-rooms with their faces against the wall. Patrols were sent out to search the building, but none of the staff was allowed to accompany them. In a quarter of an hour they came back with a radio and two cardboard boxes full of dusty "illegal" newspapers, which they triumphantly placed in front of me: "*Na, Sie werden wohl bleich jetzt?*" I categorically denied any knowledge of their findings and demanded to be shown the spot where they had been found. This was refused, and the criminal objects were brought out to the motor vans.

In the meantime, an endless process of marching, questioning, controlling of

identity cards, and registering had begun. Eventually all the professors and students were arrested. Fortunately, they were not so numerous, because a slip of paper with a warning had circulated in the reading-room shortly before the police turned up. Those arrested were taken away in the motor vans to the assembly hall of the university, where they found colleagues from the other university buildings. In all, about eleven hundred students were taken, and of them ultimately eight hundred were deported to camps in Germany. After several unsuccessful attempts at converting them to the Nazi Weltanschauung, they were very severely treated and underwent much suffering; many of them never came back to Norway.

The staff of the library were released and sent home, but the library itself was declared closed. I expected that I would hear more of the radio and the "illegal" papers, but as time went on and nothing happened I really was led to think that it was the police themselves who had brought them into the building—for all eventualities. In the National Archives the discovery of an odd issue of the *Economist*, a single sheet of an old "illegal" paper, was enough to put the director in jail for months. Moreover, he was placed as a "bomb hostage" in the cellar under the headquarters of the Gestapo.

The fate of the students depressed us considerably as we kept our daily work going on inside the closed building. A library without a public soon loses its inspiring rhythm. I took up negotiations with the Gestapo, with Dr. Huhnhauser as an intermediary, and obtained permission to open again after three weeks.

But on Sunday, December 19, 1943—the day before reopening—we experienced another disaster at about three o'clock in the afternoon. A munitions ship

in the west harbor, about half a mile from the library, blew up in a series of the most terrible explosions that shook the whole city. Many large buildings in the vicinity collapsed and caught fire. The University Library was in the danger zone. In the evening the situation seemed quite alarming. An ocean of fire illuminated the interior; cartridges and shrapnel from burning munitions stores came flying in through the windows, so that we had to seek shelter behind the walls. The curtains flickered in the wind which sent showers of sleet in on the floor where the furniture was jumbled together. I experienced the saddest moment in my library life. The only fortunate circumstance was that the accident happened on a Sunday when the building was empty, so that no lives were lost. Gradually the fire was brought within bounds. Four of the staff stayed during the night in the janitor's lodge as voluntary fire-watchers.

The next morning came with frost and sunshine, and now we could take a full survey of the devastation. It was a miserable sight. More than six hundred windows were blown in and half an acre of skylight had crashed. Up in the open framework we saw steel beams from the munitions ship hanging together with pieces of German uniforms. We had to clear our way through piles of broken glass and the wet mud of melting snow. Heavy window frames were thrown across the floor. In the stacks, however, the books had held their lines like gallant soldiers, although some hundreds lay wounded on the floor under a shower of glass splinters and cartridges. Even shells, both exploded and unexploded, were found deep in the aisles.

While the female staff began cleaning the desks and the catalogs, the men worked hard, shoveling tons of glass into

heaps and carrying it away in wastepaper baskets on book trucks. The skylights were covered with canvas tarpaulins, while carpenters began to close the window openings with wooden shutters. Since the glaziers of the town at once ran short of panes, we had to work in artificial light for months. The wooden roof over the skylighted halls could not be exchanged for glass as long as the war lasted; nevertheless, we opened the reading-rooms again on March 20, 1944, with electric light only.

Fortunately, no other library was within the damaged quarters of the city.

THE END

During the last months of the war we perceived a growing nervousness among the Germans. Some became reasonable, others rabid. For instance, an officer came rushing into the library one day, his cap on, and cloak fluttering, shouting that he was being spied upon from the windows of the bindery. From his office across the street he could see a bald head watching his doings. All the windows had to be blacked out—“*Augenblicklich! Verstanden?*” I tried to calm him down,

but he was literally foaming with fury: “*Wenn ich nochmals den Mann mit dem kahlen Kopf herübergucken sehe, dann haue ich ihm eins*”—he shook his fist—“*in die Fresse!*”—“Well, I shall have to report your complaint to the Kulturabteilung. May I ask your honored name?” His inflated rage was suddenly punctured. “Is that necessary? Name is indifferent. *Ich bin der evangelische Feldprediger.*” He made a correct military salute, and out he went, more sober than when he entered.

But the last weeks were a heavy strain on us, too. Our fears for what the German desperados would do grew from day to day. Would they act on their threats of making a last fortress of Norway, fight to the bitter end, and ultimately blow up everything? It was the culmination of five years' continuous nervous excitement. Fortunately, the remnants of their common sense got the better of their grandiloquent plans. And in the afternoon of May 7, 1945, the Norwegian flag again was flying over the University Library. Three days later we planted our liberty tree, a young oak, outside the new wing.

SURVEY OF RECENT RUSSIAN LIBRARY LITERATURE

ARTHUR B. BERTHOLD

THE present survey is an attempt at a fairly inclusive cross-section of Russian library literature of the more recent years. Under normal circumstances the word "recent" might be taken to mean publications which have appeared within the last five years. In the present instance, however, such a limiting of the field would yield extremely uneven results. The influx of Russian publications has always been rather uncertain, and during the war years it ceased almost completely. Then, too, even before World War II, no systematic acquisition in any given subject field was ever entirely successful. Too much depended on the policy and the good will of the Soviet government, and these were not always favorable. For these reasons the concept of "recent" should be understood to cover the period from 1930 on and, in certain instances, to refer to even earlier dates.

While the period to be covered is thus very loosely defined, the actual coverage for that period can lay no claim to uniformity or completeness. This is a limitation due to the fact that lack of adequate bibliographical tools prevented a complete inventory of the publications issued. The titles mentioned are for the most part those actually available, but there are also other titles for which only book reviews could be found. With these limitations in mind the total number of titles discussed is about fifty for the period under consideration and about forty more for the period before 1930. While absolute exactness is, of course, impossible, there is good reason to believe that

the total represents about 60 to 70 per cent of the library literature actually published.

While the figures may not be entirely complete, it is reported that in 1914 there were in Russia a total of 12,466 libraries outside the cities and that in 1920, a little over two years after the Revolution, the number had grown to 35,517.¹ The census of 1934 gives the total of all kinds of libraries in the Soviet Union as 199,158, of which 48.3 per cent were located in cities and towns and 51.7 per cent in rural communities.² In the cities and towns there was a library for every group of 418 people and in the country a library for every group of 1,276 people. The total number of volumes for all libraries was 272,000,000. Another analysis, for Russia proper, is interesting because it provides a breakdown by types of libraries and by size of their holdings.³ According to this study there was in Russia a total of 150,552 libraries of all types, of which 67,271 are described as "stationary" and 83,281 as "mobile" or traveling. Of the stationary libraries 11.7 per cent were scientific and special, 42.0 per cent "mass" or popular libraries, and 46.3 per cent school and children's libraries. The total holdings were 209,900,000 volumes, of which the

¹ *Bol'shaya sovetskaya entsiklopediia* (Moskva, 1927), Vol. VI, col. 181.

² V. A. Nevskii, "Pervye itogi biblioteknoi perepisi," *Sovetskaya bibliografiia*, 1935, Nos. 1-2, pp. 147-53.

³ A. Kononova, "Itogi perepisi bibliotek po RSFSR," *Krasnyi bibliotekar'*, 1935, No. 8, pp. 20-22.

scientific and special libraries absorbed 94,200,000 volumes.

The tremendous growth in the number of libraries after the Revolution evidenced by these figures is directly ascribable to the concern of the Soviet government for the education of its citizens. The aims of Soviet librarianship as described in the *Soviet Encyclopaedia*, consist of: (1) activism—the use of all means to attract the reader; (2) liquidation of illiteracy and struggle against indifference to reading; (3) practicality—the library in the role of a workshop as against the conception of the library as a “castle of learning”; (4) service to the masses to carry out the party slogan of “the book to the masses”; (5) co-operation with all other state institutions engaged in cultural work and in the “liquidation of actual as well as political illiteracy.”⁴ It is clear that before any such program could be attempted, a complete reorganization and regrouping of the book resources of the country had to be undertaken. Druganov lists several hundred private libraries and book collections, totaling millions of volumes, which the government confiscated and redistributed among the public libraries and research institutions, primarily in Moscow and in Leningrad but also, to a less extent, among many other cultural centers in the Union.⁵

While no complete history of Russian libraries has yet appeared, several monographs have been published in celebration of individual libraries.⁶ Articles on

library history as well as on library science in general are listed in the bibliographies of Mez'er and Vol'tsenburg.⁷ Ikonnikov's great work on Russian historiography has special chapters devoted to both libraries and archives and remains, in the main, the best source for the study of Russian library history from the earliest times to the end of the third quarter of the nineteenth century.⁸ Zdobnov's recent history of Russian bibliography⁹ is unique in the field. Bibliography is conceived in the broadest meaning of the term, and the array of facts and especially the sociological interpretation of them are in the best tradition of historical scholarship. It is unfortunate, however, that he too has found it advisable to follow the rather irritating practice of Soviet scholars of

(Moskva, 1943). Other Moscow libraries are dealt with in P. A. Bezsonov, *Tipografskā biblioteka v Moskve* (Moskva, 1859), E. Tremer, *Biblioteka Ioanna Groznago* (Moskva, 1891), N. Likhachev, *Biblioteka i arkhiv moskovskikh gosudareĭ v XVI stoletii* (S.-Peterburg, 1894), S. A. Belokurov, *O biblioteke moskovskikh gosudareĭ XVI stoletii* (Moskva, 1898). An important monastery library is described by the arkhimandrit Amfilokhit in his *Opisanie Voskresennoi novoi ierusalimskoi biblioteki* (Moskva, 1875). The Leningrad public library and its services are treated in two jubilee volumes: *Imperatorskā publichnā biblioteka za sto let 1814-1914* (S.-Peterburg, 1914), and B. Rest, *Knigi i ljudi: ocherki iz istorii Gosudarstvennoi publichnoi biblioteki imeni M. E. Saltykova-Shchedrina 1814-1939* (Leningrad, 1939). Mention must also be made of the only general library directory which has come to our attention, *Biblioteki i kluby SSSR* (Leningrad, 1925). It is not known whether a more up-to-date edition of this work is available.

⁴ *Bol'shāi sovetskāi entsiklopediā*, Vol. VI, cols. 139-45.

⁵ I. A. Druganov, “Biblioteki vedomstvennye, obshchestvennye i chastnye i ikh sud'ba v sovetskuiu epokhu,” *Sovetskāi bibliografiā*, 1933-35.

⁶ Thus, the development of the present national library in Moscow is described in a collection of essays entitled *Gosudarstvennā biblioteka imeni V. I. Lenina 1862-1942*, pod red. N. N. Īakovleva

⁷ A. V. Mez'er, *Slovarnyi ukazatel' po knigovedeniū* (Leningrad, 1924) and O. E. Vol'tsenburg, *Bibliografiā bibliotekovedeniā* (Petrograd, 1923).

⁸ V. S. Ikonnikov, *Opyt Russkoĭ istoriografii* (Kiev, 1891-1908).

⁹ N. V. Zdobnov, *Istoriā russkoĭ bibliografii ot drevnego perioda do nachala XX veka. Tom I: XI vek—pervā polovina XIX veka* (Moskva, 1944).

publishing a first part of their work for no better reason than that it happens to be ready. On the basis of past experience there is no saying when the second part of the history will appear. In the meantime, the period of Russian librarianship and bibliography down to 1850 is very well explored and presented to the public in a form and detail which leave hardly anything to be desired.

While it may be said that the development of libraries depends largely on the ability and the willingness of the government and the public to purchase books and to make them generally available, in the final analysis the ability to do these things rests to a considerable extent upon the publishing enterprises of the country. In the matter of publishing, the quantitative output of the Soviet presses is considerably in advance of that of most other countries. A few facts about Soviet publishing will make this statement abundantly clear.¹⁰ In 1913, Russian publishers issued a total of 86,700,000 copies of books, of which 80,200,000 were in Russian and 6,500,000 in 49 languages of national minorities. In 1938, under Soviet rule, a total of 692,700,000 volumes were published, of which 545,700,000 were in the Russian language and 147,000,000 in 111 minority languages. Forty of the minority peoples did not have any writing or even their own alphabets before the Revolution. The significance of these figures will be better understood if presented in a different way: before the Revolution an average of 0.7 books were published per inhabitant, while in 1938 the average had risen to 4.1 per inhabitant. The number of newspapers had increased from 859 in 1913 to 8,550 in 1938, and the corres-

ponding increase in newspapers in languages of national minorities was from 84 to 2,188. Comparable figures for periodicals are not available, but here some interesting conclusions may be drawn from a subject analysis of their contents. Of the total of 1,762 periodicals appearing in 1938, the subject grouping was as follows:

Politics and social economy	308
Technology, transport, agronomy	707
Natural sciences, mathematics, medicine	344
Education	104
Literature and fine arts	166

Total 1,629

The remaining 133 titles apparently were not included in the analysis, perhaps as being of too general a nature. Periodicals were published in 50 languages of the Soviet Union, while before the Revolution journals were published only in 24 languages. Publishing and book-trade activities have been, on the whole, rather well investigated, and considerable literature on the subject, both old and recent, is available in American libraries.¹¹

¹⁰ All aspects of publishing, book-selling, censorship, and the general history of the book in Russia are discussed in the following: A. A. Bakhtiarov, *Istoriia knigi na Rusi* (S.-Peterburg, 1890), S. Librovich, *Na knizhnom postu: vospominaniia, zapiski, dokumenty* (S.-Peterburg, 19—?), S. Librovich, *Istoriia knigi v Rossii* (S.-Peterburg, 1914), Vladimir Rozenberg, *Letopis' russkoi pechati 1907-1914* (Moskva, 1914), Rossiiskaia Tsentral'naiia Knizhnaia Palata, *Pechat' RSFSR v 1922 godu* (Moskva, 1923—), V. Adar'ukov and A. Sidorov, *Kniga v Rossii* (Moskva, 1924), N. F. Ānitskii, *Kniga v 1924 g. v SSSR* (Leningrad, 1925), M. Kulaev, *Istoriia russkoi knigi v XIX veke* (Leningrad, 1927), USSR-Komitet po Delam Pechati, *Platilenii plan khoziaistva pechati SSSR* (Moskva, 1929), M. B. Vol'ison, *Puti sovetskoi knigi* (Moskva, 1929), M. V. Muratov, *Knizhnoe delo v Rossii v XIX i XX vekakh . . . 1800-1917 gody* (Moskva, 1931), E. I. Shamurin, *Sovetskaiia kniga za 15 let v tsifrakh* (Moskva, 1933), *XV let raboty Ogisa 1919-1934* (Moskva, 1934), T. Draudin, *Ocherki izdatel'skogo dela v SSSR* (Moskva, 1934), *Vsesoiuznaia*

¹¹ The following figures on Russian book production are taken from *Vsesoiuznaia Knizhnaia Palata, Tsifry o pechati SSSR* (Vtoroe izdanie; Moskva, 1939).

In the matter of librarianship proper, great importance must be ascribed to professional periodicals. In a country of the size of the Soviet Union their importance as a medium for sharing experiences and the introduction of new methods can hardly be overestimated. Before the Revolution only one library periodical appeared—the *Bibliotekar'*, issued by the Society of Librarians of St. Petersburg. It was published from 1910 to 1915. Bibliographical journals carrying occasional articles of purely library interest were also published by the Moscow Bibliographical Club and the Russian Bibliographical Society,¹² all of which ceased

Knizhnaia Palata, Tsifry o pechatii SSSR (Vtoroe izdanie; Moskva, 1939).

The growing complexities of book-selling under state control and the lack of experienced personnel are responsible for several short aids in this field. The oldest, but still one of the best, is M. Muratov and N. Nakoriakov, *Knizhnaia torgovlia; posobie dlia rabotnikov knizhnogo dela* (Moskva, 1925).

A special monograph of considerable interest is A. N. Engelhardt's *Ocherk istorii russkoi tsensury v svyazi s zavvitiem pechatii 1703-1903* (S.-Peterburg, 1904). All the general histories of the book in Russia have chapters on this subject, and Zdobnov in his history of bibliography points out that among the first bibliographies prepared under government auspices were lists of prohibited books.

The introduction of printing in Russia is celebrated in a nicely illustrated monograph on the life and activities of the first printer, Ivan Fedorov. It was prepared by the Institut knigi, dokumenta, pis'ma of the Akademii Nauk SSSR and is entitled *Ivan Fedorov, pervopechatnik* (Moskva, 1935). The U.S.S.R. celebrated the five hundredth anniversary of the invention of printing by arranging an exhibition of incunabula and early printed books in the Cyrillic alphabet. A commemorative monograph of the event is I. Bas's *Velikoe otkrytie 500 let knigopechataniia* (Moskva, 1940).

¹² The pre-Revolutionary library and bibliographical journals include: *Bibliotekar'* (S.-Peterburg: Obshchestvo knigovedeniia, 1910-15), *Knigovedenie* (Moskva: Moskovskii bibliograficheskii kruzhok, 1894-?), *Russkii bibliofil* (S.-Peterburg, 1911-16), and *Bibliograficheskii izvestiia* (Moskva: Russkoe bibliograficheskoe obshchestvo, 1913-18). To these may be added the *Trudy pervogo Vserossiiskogo s'ezda po bibliotechnomu delu, . . . 1911* (S.-Peterburg, 1912)—the proceedings of the first Russian library convention.

publication during World War I. After the Revolution, efforts were made to revive the professional press, and several promising starts were made. The earliest was the *Biblioteknoe obozrenie*, issued, with intervals of inactivity, from 1919 to 1927. It was intended for the more scholarly libraries and was somewhat like our *College and Research Libraries* in contents and scope. The scholarly tradition was then taken up by the *Sovetskaiâ bibliografiâ*, which, under three different names, appeared from 1929 to 1940.¹³ This journal at times came quite near to the scholarship and broadness of point of view maintained by the *Library Quarterly*—in all questions, it must be emphasized, not involving the Soviet philosophy of life. The journal most closely representing the Soviet point of view, however, is undoubtedly the *Krasnyi bibliotekar'*, which was started in 1923 and is very likely still being published.¹⁴ It is to the Russian librarian what the *Library Journal* and the *Wilson Bulletin for Librarians* are to the average public librarian in the United States. Studies and aids of special interest to librarians are also issued from time to time by the Moscow Library Institute (Moskovskii Gosudarstvennyi Biblioteknyi Institut) and the All-Union Book Chamber (Vsesoiuznaia Knizhnaia Palata). There is a Central Book Chamber in every one of the Soviet republics, and their duties in-

¹³ *Sovetskaiâ bibliografiâ* (Moskva: Vsesoiuznaia knizhnaia palata, 1933-1940?). The 1929 issues of this periodical appeared under the title *Bibliografiâ* and the 1930 issues under the title *Bibliotekovedenie i bibliografiâ*. Like the other journals, it suffered several temporary cessations in its short-lived career.

¹⁴ An excellent analysis of the subject content and general tendency of the articles in this magazine will be found in Nathalie Delougaz' article, "Some Problems of Soviet Librarianship as Reflected in Russian Library Periodicals," *Library Quarterly*, XV (1945), 213-23.

clude those of a copyright office and a bureau of bibliographical information and library co-operation.

For reasons of convenience, a discussion of the literature of Russian library technique may well be undertaken along functional lines. On this basis library organization and technical processes may be considered first. The over-all impression one gathers is that Russian librarians are very much concerned with these problems, that they have made extensive adaptations of procedures developed abroad, especially in the United States, but that they themselves have made slight contributions to the field as a whole. They have published a number of elementary manuals, such as those by Khavkina, Shamurin, and Klenov,¹⁵ but none of these approach the thoroughness common in the better manuals produced in the United States. This is likewise true of the earlier works by Sobol'shchikov, Vasil'ev, and Rubakin,¹⁶ all of which enjoyed considerable popularity before the advent of the Soviet power.

¹⁵ As, for instance, L. B. Khavkina, *Kniga i biblioteka* (Moskva, 1918) and the same author's *Rukovodstvo dlia nebol'shikh bibliotek* (Izdanie 4-e; Moskva, 1925). E. I. Shamurin's *Kak pol'zovat'sia knigoi i katalogom biblioteki* (Moskva, 1935) and A. V. Klenov's *Kratkoe rukovodstvo po biblioteknoi tekhnike* (Moskva, 1944) are the more modern examples of this type of literature. Mrs. Khavkina, it may be remarked, obtained her professional training in the United States and is the principal exponent of American methods in her native country.

¹⁶ V. Sobol'shchikov, *Ob ustroistve obshchestvennykh bibliotek i sostavlenii ikh katalogov* (S.-Peterburg, 1895), V. Vasil'ev, *Biblioteknoe delo* (Izdanie vtoroe; S.-Peterburg, 1913) and N. Rubakin, *Sredi knig* (Izdanie vtoroe; Moskva, 1911-15). Sobol'shchikov, an outstanding bibliographer of his day, also published *Obzor bol'shikh bibliotek Evropy v nachala 1850 g.* (S.-Peterburg, 1860) which is, perhaps, the first Russian monograph devoted entirely to libraries abroad. Khavkina's *Biblioteki, ikh organizatsiia i tekhnika* (S.-Peterburg, 1904), a study based upon a survey of 635 Russian libraries, remains, to our knowledge, a unique performance.

The technique of book description has received more attention than any other technical operation. That this should be so is quite natural. Nowhere else is uniformity so important as here, and nowhere else is the untrained or, what is perhaps more common, the superficially trained library worker in greater need of reliable and easily accessible guidance. Detailed cataloging instructions are understood only by a reasonably well-trained librarian. Such training, because of lack of library schools, was never available to a large number of library personnel called upon to perform the duties of a cataloger. A work like the A.L.A. Code would be largely beyond their comprehension. Consequently, no such code has been prepared in Russia. Instead, a number of elementary cataloging manuals have been issued, each aiming at the needs of special types of libraries.¹⁷ The fundamental principles of

¹⁷ Bibliographical methods are explained by Iurii Bitovt in *Rukovodstvo k bibliograficheskoi opisaniu knig* (Moskva, 1902) and by A. V. Kremetskaiia in *Spravochno-bibliograficheskaia rabota v tekhnicheskikh bibliotekakh* (Moskva, 1941). As already indicated before, the whole field of Russian bibliography, both practical and theoretical, is expertly surveyed in Zdobnov's *Istoriia russkoi bibliografii* (Moskva, 1944). Manuals of cataloging are many, the more popular being: A. I. Kalishevskii, *Katalogizatsiia v nebol'shikh bibliotekakh* (Moskva, 1919), Institut Bibliotekovedeniia, *Instruktsiia po sostavleniiu alfavitnogo kataloga* (Moskva, 1928), E. I. Shamurin, *Alfavitnyi katalog* (Moskva, 1932) and the same author's more elaborate *Katalogizatsiia* (Moskva, 1933), and, finally, the most authoritative of them all, the *Instruktsiia po knigoopisaniu* (Vtoroe izdanie; Moskva, 1936), published under the auspices of the Vsesoiuznaia Knizhnaia Palata.

Cataloging of newspapers is treated in A. A. Ternovskaiia and A. M. Abramtseva, *Katalogizatsiia gazet* (Moskva, 1936) while the cataloging of periodicals is described in the *Instruktsiia dlia opisaniia zhurnalov* (Vtoroe izdanie; Leningrad, 1928) prepared by the Faculty of Librarianship of the University of Leningrad. Shamurin's *Raspysanie statei periodicheskikh izdani* (Moskva, 1936) is a manual on the preparation of bibliographies and indexes of periodical articles. Cutter's author

procedure, very closely approximating American practice, are the same in all the manuals, but examples are selected from materials peculiar to the libraries in question. Here, too, Khavkina is one of the pioneers. In more recent years, however, the works of Shamurin, Ternovskaia, and Zdobnov in book form, as well as in articles in the *Sovetskaiâ bibliografiâ*, tend to overshadow her.

Classification is a field in which the Russians have been both original and adaptive. Disregarding Grigorii the theologian's rather quaint grouping of Russian medieval manuscripts into "true" or canonical works and "untrue" or condemned, the first original Russian classification scheme, the product of Bantysh-Kamenskii, was given to the public in 1776 in his bibliography of Russian literature, entitled *De notitia librorum russicarum systematica expositorum*. In this work, the main classes are given as:

- I. Philology
- II. History
- III. Geography
- IV. Mathematics
- V. Philosophy
- VI. Theology
- VII. Medicine

Thirty years later, in 1806, a classification scheme—the first for a library—was developed for the considerable private collection of Paul Demidov. Here the main classes are six, and it is clear that the scheme had been developed independently of Bantysh-Kamenskii. The order of the classes follows:

- I. Philology
- II. Historiography
- III. Theology
- IV. Philosophy
- V. Technology
- VI. Polymatics

tables have been elaborated and adapted for Russian use by Khavkina, the eleventh edition of this work appearing in 1936.

"Polymatics" appears to have been understood in the sense of general reference works and the development of scholarship in general—something like the O class in Dewey. The introduction of a "Technology" class, especially under that name, is something unusual for that time. This distinctly modern note is not repeated in Russia until well toward the end of the nineteenth century.

The best-known pre-Revolutionary classification scheme, however, is the one developed by A. N. Olenin, a distinguished librarian of the Imperial Library of St. Petersburg.¹⁸ Olenin's scheme is based on the system of the sciences advocated by Leibnitz and was published for the use of the Imperial Library in 1809. The whole field of literature was first divided into three groups and each group into three classes, with divisions and subdivisions as necessary. The sequence of classes is as follows:

- I. The Sciences
 - 1. Intellectual sciences
 - a. Theology
 - b. Law
 - c. Philosophy
 - d. History
 - 2. Natural sciences
 - a. Natural history
 - b. Medicine
 - c. Physics
 - d. Chemistry
 - 3. Defining sciences
 - a. Mathematics (pure and applied)
- II. The Arts
 - 4. Mechanical
 - 5. Liberal
 - 6. Literary
- III. Philology
 - 7. Linguistics
 - 8. Polygraphy
 - 9. Critique

Anyone who takes the trouble to compare Olenin's scheme with the system of

¹⁸ A. N. Olenin, *Opyt novogo bibliograficheskogo poriadka dlia Sanktpeterburgskoi imperatorskoi biblioteki* (S.-Peterburg, 1809).

Brunet, also founded on Leibnitz, will have little difficulty in recognizing the superior logic in the Russian work.

Information is lacking as to the history of classification in Russia for the next seventy-five years. It may be assumed that the development had been on the trial-and-error plane characteristic to a certain extent of the whole library movement. Libraries probably developed their own systems, with occasional reference to the experiences of other libraries but for the most part without a clear realization of the importance of uniformity in point of view and in technique. It was not until 1904, when Khavkina's *Biblioteki* appeared, that a classification scheme, the Dewey Decimal, became more generally known, and it took another nine years before this system was properly explained in classrooms. In 1913 the first library school was opened at the University of Moscow, and the curriculum provided for two courses in classification: a general one on the "Systems of Classification" and a special and practical one on the "Decimal System of Classification."¹⁹ The composition of the curriculum thus makes it clear that the decimal classification had been selected as the appropriate one for propagation among Russian libraries. This classification, however, was not the original scheme developed by Dewey but rather the so-called "Universal Decimal Classification" elaborated by the International Institute of Bibliography in Brussels.

The post-Revolutionary period of Russian libraries did two things for classification: it imposed the Universal Decimal Classification on all the libraries in the Soviet Union, and it was responsible

for the publication of a number of special manuals adapting this system to the uses of both scientific and "mass" libraries.²⁰ The party line is very evident in them. The Marxist-Leninist conception of the social system receives great emphasis in purely Russian subjects, such as history, geography, and literature. The shorter manuals, designated for the use of "mass" libraries, do not, as a rule, go beyond the first three numbers of the notation. On the other hand, all of them make full use of the auxiliary tables for form divisions and introduce, where necessary, still other innovations by the use of the alphabet to replace long and cumbersome series of numerals. The best feature, however, is the generous use of explanatory notes, definitions of terms and concepts of classes, parallel arrangements, and subordinations. Nothing, in fact, is left to the possibility of misinterpretation, so that even an untrained classifier may proceed with assurance and success. This is a feature well worth imitating in our own classification systems.

While service to readers has received considerable treatment in the library periodicals, very little has been published on this question in monograph form. In obedience to the party slogan, "the book to the masses," every effort has been made to increase the reading public. When illiteracy interfered, the book was brought to the masses by means of organized public readings. Thus, the library is not only a place where one may read but also a place where one may

¹⁹ G. I. Porshnev, "Pervye kursy po biblioteknomu delu," *Biblioteka; sbornik statei*, pod redaktsiei A. I. Kalishevskogo, N. F. IAnitskogo i A. D. Eikhengol'tsa (Moskva, 1927), pp. 113-22.

²⁰ The most up-to-date manuals for the small "mass" libraries are L. N. Toropovskii's *Desiatichnaisa klassifikatsiia, sokhrashcheniye i pererabotannnye tablitsy dlia massovykh bibliotek* (3-e izdanie; Moskva, 1942) and *Kratkie tablitsy dseiatchnoi klassifikatsii dlia nebol'shikh bibliotek* (Moskva, 1944). The needs of the scholarly libraries are considered in N. V. Rusinov's *Desiatichnaisa klassifikatsiia knig* (Moskva, 1944).

listen to the reading of specially selected and occasionally trained public readers. Group reading, followed by discussion, is a very popular device. For instance, reading circles and study groups were organized throughout the country to popularize the so-called "Stalin Constitution" when it was before the Supreme Soviet in 1936. Reading groups were also organized in connection with the publication of Shestakov's history of the U.S.S.R.²¹ and a popular history of the Communist party. All this was done to introduce and to popularize the new Soviet nationalism, which, for reasons not entirely clear, is supposed to be untainted with the objectionable features of nationalism in capitalistic countries. The *Krasnyi bibliotekar'* has published a large number of photographs showing groups of workers participating in these study and reading circles, and there are special articles celebrating the achievement of these groups.

In the few cases where information is available, the generally assumed interest of the average Russian in social problems is not very well substantiated by his reading habits. A study of the reading interests of the Red Army,²² based upon a survey of the actual reading of two hundred thousand soldiers, establishes the following order of preference:

1. Literature and fiction
2. Social problems
3. Periodicals and reference works
4. History
5. Useful arts
6. Science
7. Religion
8. Philosophy
9. Fine arts
10. Languages

²¹ A. V. Shestakov, *Kratkii kurs istorii SSSR* (Moskva, 1937).

²² Evgenii Khlebtsevich, *Izuchenie chitatel'skikh interesov shirokikh mass* (Moskva, 1923).

Only the order of preference was given, so that the most interesting percentual relationship among the subjects remains obscure. The term "periodicals," too, tells us very little. We may assume that they may have been general and popular in character, in which case most of their articles would be in the fields of literature and the social sciences.

More concrete information is available about the reading interests of young workers. A survey of workers' libraries²³ is of considerable interest in that it gives not only a percentual analysis of actual reading but also the relative strength of certain subjects in those libraries. The libraries surveyed contained:

	Per Cent
1. Literature and fiction.....	28
2. Social sciences.....	30
3. Natural sciences.....	5
4. Applied sciences.....	5
5. All other subjects.....	32
Total.....	100

The readers' interest, however, shows a much less socially conscious trend. Following the same grouping, the results were:

	Per Cent
1. Literature and fiction.....	49
2. Social sciences.....	12
3. Natural sciences.....	3
4. Applied sciences.....	3
5. All other subjects.....	33
Total.....	100

A third study of young workers in the Moscow region²⁴ informs us that the

²³ *Bo'shaia sovetskaiia entsiklopediia* (Moskva, 1927), v. 6, col. 191.

²⁴ *Chto chitaet rabochaiia molodezh'* (Moskva, 1930). Special manuals on the work with various groups and types of readers are also available. Their chief characteristic is conciseness, with emphasis on methods of socialistic indoctrination and controlled and supervised reading generally. N. Rubakin's *Pis'ma k chitatel'am o samoobrazovanii*

average number of books read per person per month was 2.6, and that as many as 78.6 per cent of the titles read were classified as literature and fiction. It is clear, then, that the campaign in favor of social-economic literature has not always been very successful. Book selection is another matter, but on that question there is no concrete information except the frequent calls for weeding of material without a social message and insufficiently emphasizing the Marxist-Leninist point of view.

Library co-operation is best exemplified by the attention given to such problems as joint inventorying of libraries, interlibrary loans, and union lists and catalogs. No systematic program of subject specialization and planned acquisition and distribution of library materials is possible without knowledge of what is already available and where it may be found. Thus, as in our own country, the Russians have paid serious attention to these problems. The first union catalog appears to have been compiled in the second half of the seventeenth century by the Patriarch Nikon. It lists 2,672 manuscripts found in the libraries of thirty-nine Russian monasteries. Since then, sixty-five union lists and catalogs have been compiled, most of them after the Revolution.²⁵ In Russia proper there are thirty-six, in the Ukraine twenty-one, in the Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic five, in Uzbekistan two, and in Turkmenistan one. Three of the union cata-

logs are all-inclusive and national in scope, forty-five are limited to periodicals, and seventeen to various specified subjects, medicine and technology being the most frequent. Interest in what is being published abroad is very active, a total of forty-seven union catalogs and lists including nothing but material received from abroad. Five of these union catalogs are general in scope, while forty-two of them are devoted to various types of foreign periodicals.

Generally speaking, very good use is being made of these union catalogs as regards the acquisition of publications from abroad. By exchange alone the All-Union Lenin State Library of Moscow received during the period between 1936 and 1941 a total of 186,712 volumes, sending in return 214,568 volumes.²⁶ During these years the Library maintained exchange relations with libraries and learned societies in fifty foreign countries. To this should be added the exchange activities of the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, commonly known as VOKS, which before the war maintained exchange relations with fifty-nine countries and in its best years brought into the country a round 32,000 volumes. The increase in foreign purchases may be gathered from the fact that while in 1910 the State Library bought 248 titles abroad, in 1936 the number of titles so obtained had risen to 2,841. To what extent these foreign titles are available to the general public is, of course, another matter. No information is available on this interesting subject.

To summarize, Russian library litera-

Petrograd, 1919) is a good example of the earlier "urge for self-education" method. The more modern methods are exemplified in *Bibliotchnaia rabota v derevne* (Moskva, 1926), S. P. Ginan, *Rabota s knigoi v Krasnoi Armii* (Moskva, 1934), and I. Verkhovskii and S. Bultakh, *Rabota s knigoi sredi molodezhi* (Moskva, 1933).

²⁵ Russian union catalogs are thoroughly dealt with in L. B. Khavkina, *Svodnye katalogi* (Moskva, 1943).

²⁶ These and other figures on international book exchange are taken from M. M. Klevenksii, "Kul'turnye svyazi biblioteki s zagraniitsei," in N. N. Iakovlev (ed.), *Gosudarstvennaia biblioteka SSSR imeni V. I. Lenina 1862-1942* (Moskva, 1943), pp. 201-16.

ture occupies a vital place in the methodology of the cultural and educational work with the Russian people. The library movement as such is thoroughly utilized by the government and by the Communist party for the purpose of popularizing and propagating their aims and ideology. To do this successfully, it has been found necessary to institute an all-out program of attracting new readers. In intensity and means of persuasion there is nothing that can be compared with it. Ideological and philosophical discussions of the meaning of librarianship are few. The party is assumed to have given full answers to such questions. Questions of technique, especially in popularized form, on the other hand, are discussed widely and thoroughly, and new methods and procedures quickly find

their way in library manuals and other aids. Foreign library literature is carefully studied, and there is never lack of specialists and popularizers to take full advantage of what seems profitable and adaptable. Up to about 1935 there was a tendency to disregard the achievements and the general historical development of pre-Revolutionary librarianship, but the revival of Soviet nationalism since then has prompted a more sympathetic attitude toward the past. This new trend, evident in all phases of Russian cultural activity, is undoubtedly responsible for the recently developed historical rather than the purely technical approach to library problems. In other words, the older generation is being accepted, with some reservations of course, as the probable ancestor of the present.

ADAPTATIONS OF THE DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION FOR SOVIET LIBRARIES

NATHALIE DELOUGAZ

THE decimal classification of Melvil Dewey, with the additions and variations elaborated by the International Institute of Bibliography in Brussels in 1904-7, was used in some scientific and special libraries of Russia as early as 1908. In 1920 the new Soviet regime established it as the official classification for all Russian libraries, and the year 1924 was set as the deadline for its adoption throughout the union. Thus, Soviet Russia is the only country in the world in which D.C. is the official classification, its indices being published in the *Knizhnaia letopis'*, the Russian national bibliography.¹ Small public libraries for nonspecialized readers, termed in Russia "mass" libraries, use an abridged edition of the tables, very similar to the abridged edition of Dewey.

However, in spite of its official recognition and general use, D.C. has all these years been subjected to sharp criticism by Russian librarians. The literature on the subject is not voluminous, consisting mostly of articles and reviews published in *Krasnyi bibliotekar'*, *Sovetskaia bibliografiia*, and *Bibliotekar'*, as well as in the transactions of various library institutes; but the authors express themselves very clearly on the "undesirability" of certain elements of D.C. These critiques may be divided roughly into two categories: first, the purely theoretical criticisms of the classification of human knowledge as

viewed by the authors of D.C. and, second, the practical criticisms of the arrangement and distribution of classes, sections, and subsections.

In a detailed article on the decimal classification, I. S. Knizhnik-Vetrov² passes strictures on the general philosophy of the classification, expressing the view that D.C. is based on a purely artificial separation of mental operations, as in Bacon's classification of knowledge, only in the reverse order. It severs theory from practice, whereas, in the author's opinion, theory and practice are historically intermingled; his contention is that pure knowledge does not stand apart in an ideal world, totally separated from human activities and endeavors; on the contrary, the two are closely linked together, knowledge being conditioned by the development of human society.

The second main criticism of D.C. by Soviet authors is that it is essentially a "bourgeois" classification, devised for a capitalist society and therefore not fit for the libraries of a socialist republic. The main target for that criticism is naturally Class 300, and more specifically sections 335 and 335.6, which are supposed to include all the material on socialism and communism. (This point will be discussed in greater detail in connection with the revision of the tables.) Another "bourgeois" feature of D.C. is evident in the arrangement of section 371.9, in which are classified works on the edu-

¹ The term "decimal classification" and abbreviation "D.C." will be used for convenience throughout this paper to refer to the Brussels elaboration of the Dewey scheme—the so-called "Universal Decimal Classification."

² "K voprosu o desiatichnoi klassifikatsii," *Sovetskaia Bibliografiia*, 1933-34, Nos. 1-3, pp. 33-38.

cation of the blind, the deaf and mute, the feeble-minded, Negroes, Indians, and other oriental peoples, all of whom thus appear to be put on the same level. Such an arrangement is, naturally, contrary to the basic concepts of racial equality predominant in the U.S.S.R.

To the same category of "bourgeois" mentality, in the opinion of several writers, belong the archaic sections 396, "Feminism"; 376, "Education of women" (implicitly considered as slightly inferior human beings), and 377, "Religious education."

Another ideological criticism is directed against the classification of "History." We find an interesting discussion of that science in Knizhnik-Vetrov's article. In the new society, history is no longer a study of past events and recorded documents. It is based on economics and consists largely of the description of the industrial, agricultural, and commercial state of each country for each given period—all items which D.C. puts in 308, "Sociography." It also includes national movements (323.1), political struggles and troubles (323.2), and the history of parliamentary elections (324), of parliamentary legislation (328), of colonial conquests (325), of international politics and international movements (327), and, finally, of various political parties (329). It is Mr. Knizhnik-Vetrov's contention that all these items are closely connected and belong, for each country, with its history, and that one of the basic imperfections of D.C. is the scattering of all this related material in so many different classes and sections.

With regard to the purely formal criticisms of the arrangement of sections and subsections, they do not differ much from those presented in this country, (such as the separation of "Philology" and "Literature," for instance), with the excep-

tion of the purely national objection to the fact that the Russian language is relegated to a position among "other minor." (This point will be discussed in connection with the revised D.C. tables.)

The above grievances are unanimously brought up by Soviet writers and, to a somewhat lesser extent, by Soviet librarians. They are of the opinion that, in its present structure, D.C. is definitely inadequate for the "mass" library—even more so, though this may seem a paradox, than it is for the large libraries. Indeed, the "mass" libraries carry out a political and educational program for the masses, and their holdings consist to a great extent of a variety of party textbooks, for which broad, but explicit, classification is required.

The question is how to remedy this inadequacy. Here opinions are at variance. One trend is toward discarding the Decimal Classification altogether and replacing it by an entirely new, purely Soviet, classification. Other writers are in favor of retaining D.C. in order to avoid the tremendously long and difficult task of first elaborating such a classification and then reclassifying all the libraries of the Soviet Union. But they suggest introducing changes that, while not destroying the basic structure of the system, will correct its shortcomings and provide a more satisfactory arrangement of specific Soviet material which does not fit into the old scheme.

As a result of these various criticisms, several attempts have been made to adapt D.C. for use in different types of Soviet libraries. The most important of the schemes that have appeared so far are N. V. Rusinov's *Decimal Classification of Books*,³ designed for larger libraries, and L. N. Tropovskii's *Decimal Clas-*

³ *Desiatichnaja klassifikatsiia knig* (Moskva: Vsesoiuznaia knizhnaia palata, 1944).

sification, abridged and adapted for mass libraries,⁴ which appeared first as a preliminary project in the pages of *Krasnyi bibliotekar'* in a somewhat different form.⁵

N. V. Rusinov's tables were published by the All-Union Book Chamber in 1944. The work is preceded by a laudatory Preface, written by Professor E. I. Shamurin, a well-known personality in Russian scholarship. As a matter of fact, the Preface is somewhat contradictory; while in the beginning Mr. Shamurin emphasizes the changes made in the tables to meet Soviet requirements, toward the end he speaks of the "decimal conservatism" of Mr. Rusinov, who "almost never deviates from the original scheme"—which, incidentally, is quite true. Indeed, a detailed examination of Rusinov's tables shows very little difference from the D.C. tables, with the exception of some minor changes in some sections of Classes 1, "Philosophy," 2, "Religion," and 3, "Social Sciences," as indicated in Table 1. The rest of the "Political Parties" table, as well as the rest of the tables in general, follows D.C. Wherever more detailed treatment is necessary, Rusinov operates with time, country, form, and other subdivisions elaborated by the Brussels system and thus keeps the whole scheme rather closely within the framework of the Universal Decimal Classification.

Obviously, N. V. Rusinov was much more a librarian than a party man. He had worked with D.C. for a good number of years, had published several treatises—on the decimal classification of documents,⁶ on the decimal classification and

the classified catalogs,⁷ and on other related problems—and apparently he did not consider D.C. inapplicable to Soviet libraries. Even the rather awkward (for Russia) arrangement of "Philology" and "Literature," which was devised in an English-speaking country and relegates Russian language and literature to small subdivisions of minor languages (491.7, 891.7) does not seem to disturb him. As to the "ideological discrepancies," he seems to disregard them altogether. The only references made to the "unfortunate" place given in D.C. to "Socialism" (335, between 334, "Co-operation," and 336, "Finance") and to the Communist party (329.15, between 329.14, "Social Democrats and Labor," and 329.16, "Christian Democrats"), and the suggestion for replacing these numbers by the more "Sovietized" tables of L. N. Tropovskii, are editor's notes, not Rusinov's.

Naturally, such a light treatment of vital Communist lore could not but provoke the wrath of more politically minded, party-conscious librarians. A devastating review of Rusinov's tables appeared in *Bibliotekar'* under the signature of Z. Ambartsumian; the author says that the Book Chamber "made a serious error in publishing the tables in their present form." He attacks Rusinov for his "anti-Communist" approach in the classification of dialectical materialism and of matters pertaining to the party history, and deplores the fact that Rusinov left Russian language and literature in the category "other minor," and did nothing about the separation of the European and Asiatic Soviet Republics, which is contrary to the political organization of the union. He views the whole work as the "unhealthy" product of a

⁴ *Desiatichnatsa klassifikatsiia; sokrashchennye i pererabotannye tablitsy*. 3. ispr. i dopol. izd. (Moskva, 1942).

⁵ *Krasnyi bibliotekar'*, 1934, No. 7, pp. 51-63; No. 8, pp. 55-62.

⁶ *Desiatichnatsa klassifikatsiia dokumentov* (Moskva, 1925).

⁷ *Desiatichnatsa klassifikatsiia i sistematicheski katalog* (Moskva, 1931).

narrow conservatism, completely impracticable, except to some extent for material in Classes 5, 6, and 7. He concludes his article with a strong commendation of L. N. Tropovskii's tables for "mass"

um-sized public libraries,⁹ which first appeared in *Krasnyi Bibliotekar'* in 1934 as a tentative outline submitted for criticism by Soviet librarians throughout the union, was published in book form, with

TABLE 1

D.C.	RUSINOV
	CLASS 1, PHILOSOPHY
1(09) History of philosophy	1(09) History of philosophy
1(A-Z) Individual philosophers	1(A-Z) Individual philosophers
11 Metaphysics	11 Separate philosophical problems
12 Other metaphysical topics	(omitted)
13 Mind and body	(omitted)
14 Philosophical systems	14 Philosophical systems
	14M Dialectical materialism
15 Psychology	15 Psychology
16 Logic	16 Logic
17 Ethics	17 Ethics
18 Ancient philosophers	18 Ancient philosophers
19 Modern philosophers	19 Modern philosophers
	CLASS 2, RELIGION
215 Religion and science	215 Antireligious activities
	215(02) Antireligious textbooks
	215(05) Antireligious periodicals
	215(07) Antireligious study and teaching
	215(074) Antireligious museums
	CLASS 3, SOCIAL SCIENCES
301 Sociology	301 Sociology
	301M Historical materialism
.....
329.15 Communist party	329.15 Communist party
	329.15(✓) Communist International
	329.15(47) Russian Communist party (Bolsheviks)
	329.15K Communist youth movement
	329.15K(47) Russian Communist youth movement
	329.15P Pioneers
	329.15P(47) Russian Communist pioneers

libraries, which he describes as a good example of what public-minded Soviet librarians should try to achieve by way of "Sovietizing" D.C.⁸

L. N. Tropovskii's adaptation of the decimal classification for the use of medi-

some substantial changes, in 1938 and has already gone through three editions.¹⁰

⁹ For very small libraries, Tropovskii has published a much more abridged edition of the tables: *Kratkie tablitsy desiatichnoi klassifikatsii dlia nebol'shikh bibliotek* (Moskva, 1944).

¹⁰ *Desiatichnaia klassifikatsiia; sokrashchennnye i pererabotannnye tablitsy dlia massovykh bibliotek* (Moskva, 1938); 2. izd., 1939; 3. izd. ispravlennoe i dopolnennoe, 1942.

⁸ "K voprosu o klassifikatsii knig v sovetskikh bibliotekakh," *Bibliotekar'*, 1946, Nos. 11-12, pp. 24-30.

In the Preface to his preliminary project, Tropovskii states in no uncertain terms that he does not attempt to work out a new system of classification; such a system, he says, can be devised only on the basis of a reclassification of the sciences, which are undergoing a tremendous evolution in modern Russia. Nor does he suggest a change in the distribution of the main classes, in order not to confuse the readers who have grown used to the ten divisions, although he, along with others, finds fault with the separation of Classes 4, "Philology," and 8, "Literature," and of 3, "Social Sciences," and 9, "History," and deplores the lack of co-ordination between the natural sciences and the useful arts. A much better arrangement, in his opinion, would be the following:

- o Generalia
- 1 Philosophy. Dialectical materialism
- 2 Antireligious literature
- 3 Natural and mathematical science
- 4 Medicine, technology, agriculture
- 5 Social and political literature
- 6 History and geography
- 7 Philology
- 8 Literature
- 9 Art

This fundamental rearrangement being impractical at present, Tropovskii suggests the following amendments to D.C.:

In Class o, the author deplores the separation of works on library science, books, printing, etc., from those on education, with which they should be connected, but does not undertake to reclassify them at this stage. A rather liberal use of index letters, such as B for "bourgeois" or W for "war," enables him to make such new subsections as o2B, "Library economy in capitalist countries" and o2W, "Library work in wartime." But, on the whole, one may say that

Class o remains unchanged in its main lines.

Not so with Class 1, "Philosophy." Its main fault says Tropovskii, is that it includes philosophy, psychology, logic, and ethics in one class, thus considering psychology and ethics as purely philosophical disciplines. This, in his opinion, is a truly "bourgeois" approach to philosophy. And dialectical materialism is merely mentioned among other philosophical systems, dialectic logic being separated from dialectics. Tropovskii would prefer to see psychology taken out of philosophy as a separate science, but does not do so yet. He assigns "Dialectical materialism" a whole new section, 1M; "Historical materialism" is 1MI. "History of philosophy" is 1F; this includes "Logic" as a subsection. Ethics, after having been completely eliminated as a philosophical discipline in the preliminary project, its place being taken by 3KP, "Communist party morals," 37, "Cultural upbuilding," 331.8, "Condition of the working classes," etc., was restored in the printed schedule and forms now another subsection of 1F. Finally, 1FB includes "bourgeois" philosophy of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, and 1FI is the "bourgeois" philosophy of history throughout the ages and its criticism by Marxist philosophers.

It might be interesting to compare the arrangement of Class 1, "Philosophy," in the regular decimal classification, in Rusinov's tables, in Tropovskii's preliminary project, and in Tropovskii's published tables (Table 2).

Class 2 in Tropovskii's tables is called "Antireligious literature. Books on religion and on the struggle against religion." Few of the original D.C. sections have been preserved; as to the sacred books, such as the Bible and the Koran

(which are to be kept for reference use only), the author suggests classifying them in a special subsection 2R, "Religious books." Table 3 shows the differences between the various schemes in Class 2.

The most drastic changes introduced by Tropovskii are, naturally, in Class 3,

that this created the erroneous impression that socialism was only a branch of economics. In the preliminary project he suggested transferring these sections back to the beginning of the class, immediately following the generalities, and providing them with index letters such as 3M, "Marxism," 3L, "Leninism," 3P,

TABLE 2

D.C.	Rusinov	Tropovskii Project	Tropovskii Tables
1 Philosophy	1 Philosophy	1 Philosophy	1 Philosophy, Dialectical materialism, and Historical materialism
1(00) History of philosophy	1(00) History of philosophy		
1(A-Z) Individual philosophers	1(A-Z) Individual philosophers		
11 Metaphysics	11 Special philosophical problems		
12 Other metaphysical topics			
13 Mind and body			
14 Philosophical systems	14 Philosophical systems 14M Dialectical materialism	1M Dialectical materialism	1M Dialectical materialism 1MI Historical materialism 1F History of philosophy (including ethics and logic) 1FB Bourgeois philosophy of 19th and 20th centuries 1FI Bourgeois philosophy of history
15 Psychology	15 Psychology	15 Psychology	15 Psychology
16 Logic	16 Logic		
17 Ethics	17 Ethics		
18 Ancient philosophers	18 Ancient philosophers		
19 Modern philosophers	19 Modern philosophers		

"Social Sciences." As mentioned before, the arrangement of the original D.C. tables provided very few numbers for the great variety of detailed Communist doctrine, such as Marxism, communism, Leninism, etc. Material bearing on these subjects would, in the original system, be classified in 335, "Socialism, Communism," and 335.6, "State socialism," between 334, "Co-operation," and 336, "Finance." Tropovskii's objection was

"Communist party," 3T, "Third International," etc. Material on general non-Communist socialistic doctrines, previously classified in 335.7 and 335.8, would be put together in 329, "Political parties," in a broad section called "Bourgeois system." In addition, 301 should contain only works on historical materialism; other sociological material should be classified separately in a special subdivision, 301B.

Section 323 was to be maintained for "Internal policy," with the additional subdivision 323B devoted to contemporary policies of capitalist countries, revolutionary movements, and "bourgeois terror." As soon as such material became

out of date, it was to be transferred to Class 9, "History."

Section 322, "Church and State," was to be merged with Class 2, "Anti-religious literature." This was to be particularly useful for small libraries,

TABLE 3

D.C.	Rusinov	Tropovskii Project	Tropovskii Tables
2 Religion	2 Religion	2 Antireligious literature	2 Antireligious literature
21 Natural theology		2R Religious texts	2R Religious texts
211 Deism and atheism	211 Atheism	2:32 Religion and politics	
212 Pantheism		21 Antireligious movements	
213 Creation			
214 Providence			
215 Religion and science	215 Antireligious activities		215 Science and religion
	215(02) Textbooks		
	215(05) Periodicals		
	215(07) Study and teaching		
	215(074) Museums		
216 Evil			
217 Prayer			
218 Future life			
219 Analogies			
22 Bible	22 Bible		
23 Doctrinal			
24 Devotional			
25 Homiletic			
26 Church	26 Church		
27 Religious history	27 History of Christian church		
28 Christian churches and sects	28 Christian churches and sects		28 Christian doctrine and sects
281 Primitive and oriental church	281 Primitive and oriental church		
282 Roman Catholic church	282 Catholic church		
283 Anglican church	283 Anglican church		
284 Protestantism	284 Protestantism		
285 Presbyterianism			
286 Baptist church	286 Baptist church		
287 Methodist	287 Methodist		
288 Unitarian			
289 Minor			
29 Non-Christian	29 Non-Christian		289 Sects
			29 History of religion
291 Comparative mythology	291 Comparative religions		291 Primitive religions
			291.3 Rituals
292 Greek and Roman	292 Greek and Roman		292 Classical
293 Teutonic	293 Teutonic		
294 Brahmanism	294 Brahmanism, Buddhism		294 Buddhism
295 Parseeism	295 Parseeism		295 Parseeism
296 Judaism	296 Judaism		296 Judaism
297 Mohammedanism	297 Islam		297 Islam
298 Mormonism			
299 Other religions	299 Other religions		299 Other religions

which usually have little material on the subject and do not need a special section in which to classify it.

Section 331, "Labor," was to be supplied with new subdivisions which would take care of such new trends and movements as socialist competition, the "efficiency movement" (Stakhanovtsy), etc. The "bourgeois" labor movements were to be classified in 331B.

Section 332, "Money, credit, banks," was to be eliminated altogether as unnecessarily separated from finance, and all the material added to 336, "Finance."

Another of Tropovskii's criticisms of D.C. was the scattering of material relating to agriculture. For example, "Agricultural economics" (338) was separated from "Collectivism" (334). In his preliminary project, material on collective farms (the most popular form of agricultural administration in modern Russia) was to come immediately after generalities of agricultural reconstruction (338.1) in a special subsection 338.1S. Section 333, "Land," was to remain purely theoretical and historical, with a subsection 333B for agrarian literature in capitalist countries.

Section 338 proper, that is, "Economic organization and planning," was to be more detailed, with special subsections for the various five-year plans.

The whole terminology of 34, "Law," was to be changed and brought up to date in keeping with the principles and practice of Soviet legislation.

Finally, "Metrology" (389) was to be transferred to Class 5, "Science," for, in Tropovskii's opinion, weights and measures do not belong exclusively to the commercial system.

Most of these changes suggested in the preliminary project were retained in the printed edition of Tropovskii's tables, with the exception of section 301, which

was eliminated altogether. The index letters for communism have been changed from M (Marxism), L (Leninism), etc., to K for communism as a whole, and a much more elaborated classification scheme is provided under 3K. Section 338 is reserved for industry and commerce, and all the material on national economy and planning is classified in 33S.

Since Class 3 is the most important and the most original in Tropovskii's scheme, it may be of interest to reproduce its main features in another comparative table (Table 4).

The rest of the social sciences in Tropovskii's tables follow roughly the main divisions of D.C. and Rusinov, with the exception of 335, "Socialism," which, as we have seen, is replaced by the 3K scheme at the beginning of Class 3; and the material which D.C. puts in 398, "Folklore," is in Tropovskii's tables classified with Class 8, "Literature."

Classes 4, "Philology," and 8, "Literature," may be examined together, for the main change introduced by Tropovskii is a more "national" arrangement of the languages and literatures of the Soviet Union. The arrangement of "Philology" in the printed edition is even more "national" than in the preliminary project and is quite different from Rusinov's tables, which follow D.C. (Table 5).

It is interesting to note that Rusinov does not find it necessary to group the languages of the Soviet Union into one section but leaves them where they belong linguistically, whereas Tropovskii provides a geographical and "political" arrangement of these languages.

A similar arrangement occurs in Class 8, "Literature," with section 8S devoted to the history and criticism of the literatures of the peoples of the Soviet Union,

TABLE 4

D.C.	Rusinov	Tropovskii Tables
3 Social sciences 301 Sociology	3 Social sciences 301 Sociology 301M Historical materialism	3 Social sciences 3K Marxism, Leninism, Communism, Socialism 3K1 Marx and Engels—Works 3K11-16 Commentary, bibliography, and biography of Marx and Engels. 3K2 Lenin—Works 3K21-26 divided like 3K11-16 3K3 Stalin—Works 3K31-36 divided like 3K11-16 3K4 Collected works of the founders of Marxism-Leninism, and collected biography 3K5 Collected works of other writers on Marxism (e.g., Kalinin, Molotov, Plekhanov) 3K7 General treatises on Marxism-Leninism, Socialism, Communism 3K8 Theory, strategy and tactics of the Proletarian Revolution 3K9 History of socialism (1st and 2d International) 3K1 Communist International 3K11 History of the Communist International 3K12 Congresses and plenary assemblies of the Communist International 3K13 Organization of the Communist International 3K15 Activities of separate sections of the Communist International 3K18 First of May 3KP U.S.S.R. Communist party 3KP1 History of the Communist party 3KP11 First stage: formation 3KP12 Second stage: Bolshevik party 3KP13 Third stage: Bolshevik party in power 3KP2 Party congresses, conferences 3KP3 Party upbuilding 3KP4 Party education and propaganda 3KIM Communist International of Youth 3KIM1-8 divided like 3K11-8 3KSM All-Union Lenin Communist Union of youth 30 General works on social and political questions (encyclopedias, bibliographies, etc.) 30(o8) Collected works on social and political questions 31 Statistics 32 Political science 32:343 Struggle against counter-revolution (Trotskyists, etc.) 32B Political science in capitalist countries 32B1 Political trends and parties (bourgeois and petty bourgeois) 32B11 Fascists and other parties of extreme reaction 32B12 German fascism (National socialism) 32B13 Conservative parties 32B14 Liberal and radical parties 32B15 Anarchists, syndicalists 32B17 Bourgeois and petty bourgeois youth movements 32B2 Antifascist movement 32B3 Fascist terror and aid to victims
31 Statistics 32 Political science	31 Statistics 32 Political science	

TABLE 4—Continued

D.C.	Rusinov	Tropovskii Tables
		32W War of the Soviet people against German fascism [For larger collections, Tropovskii suggests a special classification of World War II material appended to his tables]
		32W6 United anti-Hitler front (in occupied countries, and generally). Struggle against "new order" in Europe
321 Form of state	321 Form of state	
322 Church and state	322 State and church	
323 Internal relations with groups and individuals	323 Internal policy. Class struggle	323.1 National question and national policy
324 Suffrage	324 Elections	323.1B National policy in capitalist countries
325 Colonies and immigration	325 Movement of population. Migration	
326 Slavery		
327 Foreign relations	327 International relations. Foreign relations	327 Foreign relations. International relations
		327.1 Foreign relations in World War II
		327.1S Foreign policy of Soviet republics during World War II
327.2 Imperialism	327.2 Imperialism. Aggression	327.2 World politics. Imperialism
327.3 International movement	327.3 Internationalism	
	327.31 First of May	
	327.321 International aid to revolutionaries	
	327.322 Antifascist movement	
	327.33 International cultural relations	
	327.39 Political groups	
	327.5 International conflicts	
	327.8 Secret diplomacies. Espionage	327.8 Espionage
328 Legislation	328 Legislation	
329 Political parties	329 Political parties	
33 Economics. Political economy	33 Economics	33 Economics
330.1 General problems	330.1 General problems	330.1 Economic doctrine of Marxism-Leninism
330.13 Theory of utility	330.13 Theory of value	
330.14 Capital	330.14 Capital	
330.15 Natural resources	330.15 Natural resources	
330.17 Economic freedom and intervention	330.17 Economic freedom and intervention	
330.18 Various systems of economic organization	330.18 Various systems of economic organization	
		33B Economy of capitalist countries
		33B1 History of capitalist economy
		33B2 Economy of capitalist countries during World War II
		33B4 Economic statistics of capitalist countries
		33B5 Economic geography of capitalist countries
		33I World economy
		33S Economy of socialism.
		National economy of U.S.S.R.
		33S1 History of the nationaleconomy of U.S.S.R.
		33S27 National economy of U.S.S.R. during World War II
		33S3 Planning (five-year plans)
		33S4 Statistics of national economy of U.S.S.R.
		33S5 Economic geography of U.S.S.R.
		33S6 Organization of socialist economic enterprises
		33S7 Accounting and bookkeeping of socialist economic enterprises

with index letters indicating the particular literature, e.g., 8S Ar (Armenian), etc.

Fiction remains unclassified and is arranged alphabetically by author, by means of successive Cutter numbers. If the librarian so desires, he may group the books roughly by form, country, period, or in some other way, although Tropovskii does not recommend such a classification, as one likely to prove more confusing than useful to the library and the reader.

changed. Since this class includes such unrelated subjects as "Medicine" and "Technology," these are separated into two distinct sections: first, 61, "Medicine and study of human organism," which Tropovskii puts before 6; and second, 6, "Technology."

Tropovskii's criticism of 61, "Medicine" is directed against classifying human anatomy and physiology with medicine; he considers them entirely different sciences, comparable, for instance, to bi-

TABLE 5

D.C.	Rusinov	Tropovskii Project	Tropovskii Tables
4 Philology	4 Philology	4 Philology	4 Philology 4S Languages of the peoples of the Soviet Union [with index letters prefixed to each language, as 4S Ar (Armenian) 4S R (Russian)] 41 Comparative philology
41 Comparative philology	41 Comparative philology	41 Comparative philology	
42 English, etc.	42 English, etc.	42 English, etc.	42 English, etc.
49 Minor languages	49 Other languages 491.71 Russian	49S Languages of U.S.S.R. 491 Russian	49 Other languages

In Class 5, "Science," Tropovskii's main objection is the separation of natural science from its technical application, which is emphasized in the very names of the two classes: 5, "Pure science," and 6, "Applied science." The terminology, at least, should be changed, in order to underline the ever growing interdependence of theory and practice in the scientific work of the U.S.S.R. The order of the sections, however, remains the same for the time being, pending a general reclassification.

As indicated above, the old name of "Useful arts" or "Applied science" for Class 6 in Tropovskii's opinion must be

ology. But for practical reasons, he leaves section 61 as it is in D.C., changing only its name and place in the scheme.

With respect to Class 7, "Arts, Sports," Tropovskii finds the inclusion of fine arts and games in one class difficult to justify. It is true, he says in the project, that some sports have in them a purely artistic element, but on the whole they have more relation with education, hygiene, medicine, and military training. On the other hand, he does not consider well founded the argument, put forth by some, that photography does not belong to fine arts, and he bases his opinion on the significant development

of purely artistic photography in the Soviet Union. On the whole, Class 7 remains unchanged in his tables.

The place of Class 9, "History and Geography," in the general schedule has already been commented upon. Tropovskii does not object to the inclusion of history and geography in the same class, for he sees a definite interrelation between these two sciences, since no historical study is complete without a geographical one. There is a definite need, however, for detailed tables of Russian history, which would bring out the main chronological divisions, not provided in D.C. Therefore, in Tropovskii's printed tables, the history of the Soviet Union comes immediately after the generalities, under the index number 9S, divided by period (9S1-11), with subdivisions which may be as minute as the material requires. The rest of Class 9 is more or less in keeping with D.C., with the exception of a different arrangement of period subdivisions under European history, which is rather interesting because the starting point of most of the periods, in the new tables, is a revolution:

- 9(4) Europe
- 9(4)1 Medieval history
- 9(4)2 Transitional period. Birth of capitalism.
Reformation
- 9(4)3 Beginning of modern era: English
bourgeois revolution. Struggle of
North American colonies for inde-
pendence
- 9(4)4 1789 (French Revolution) to 1860
- 9(4)42 French Revolution of 1789
- 9(4)43 Europe during the Napoleonic wars
- 9(4)46 French revolution of 1848
- 9(4)5 1870-1918
- 9(4)52 Paris Commune
- 9(4)6 1914-1918
- 9(4)7 1918-1937
- 9(4)8 1938-

Such are, in their main lines, the Russian "adaptations" of the decimal classification. We have seen that, on the

whole, the changes introduced are two-fold—practical and ideological; one could almost say, national and international. Of the practical ("national") modifications suggested by L. N. Tropovskii, one may mention the priority and the detailed arrangement of Russian language, literature, history, and geography. This parallels the "national" arrangement in Dewey and the Library of Congress classification for American literature and history. The small adjustments suggested in Class 6 are also of a purely practical nature and do not involve ideological differences. But when we come to the arrangement of the first three classes of the decimal classification—"Philosophy," "Religion," and "Social Sciences"—the ideological motives become predominant.

In our Western classifications, the inadequacy of a system usually arises from the development of new subjects for which no provision had been made. In such cases, if a schedule is at all flexible, it is usually possible to expand it in order to keep up with the growth of human knowledge.¹¹ For the U.S.S.R. librarian, however, the situation is entirely different. For him the problem is not primarily one of new subjects, but of a new approach both to society and to human knowledge. Some of the features of the new system seem to be of a transient nature, as, for instance, the elimination of religion as an important social factor. In the early years of the Soviet regime violent action was taken against the church and clergy and religion as a whole. Recent developments, however, show very

¹¹ Thus Dewey has been revised and expanded in the 500's and 600's. The Library of Congress has not yet used the letters I, O, W, X, and Y, thus keeping in store five main classes for possible new branches of knowledge; and even in the classes used, certain numbers still remain open to meet future requirements. The whole scheme of Cutter was similarly based on expansion, and Bliss also provides possibilities for further development.

clearly that yesterday's slogan, "Religion is the opiate of the people" is no longer popular today, and the fact that churches were reopened and public prayers introduced during the war is symptomatic of more leniency on the part of the government toward the freedom of religion. This cannot but affect the literature on the subject, and it is possible that Class 2 will be expanded. Indeed, we have seen that Tropovskil's tables of 1942 provide more sections in Class 2 than did his preliminary project of 1934, which provided almost none (see Table 3).

The problem is more complex with Classes 1 and 3, "Philosophy" and "Social Sciences." This is where Communist and "bourgeois" ideologies clash. Material on a society based on collectivism does not easily fit into a classification derived from concepts of private property, private enterprise, and authority of employers over employees. And since the new concept of human knowledge and society is to be founded on Karl Marx's dialectical materialism and the "great books" are the works of Marx, Engels, Lenin, and Stalin, and since there is no adequate room for them in D.C., the suggested changes are the logical consequences of a different ideological approach.

This being so, one still wonders whether the ideological differences are really as significant, so far as library classification is concerned, as they seem to be on the surface. One may notice that Rusinov's "conservative," or, as it was indignantly labeled by Mr. Ambartsumian, "unhealthy bourgeois" edition of D.C. tables for large libraries appeared in 1944—two years after the third edition of Tropovskil's scheme for "mass" libraries. Furthermore, it was published under the auspices of the All-Union Book Cham-

ber, the highest authority in the hierarchy of Russian publishing. Was it really an "oversight," as Mr. Ambartsumian deems it to be, or can one see in the circumstance an indication that, so far as large, scientific, purely scholarly libraries are concerned, scholarship and politics need not coincide? Tropovskil was more radical in his changes of the tables for nonscholarly libraries; even so, a close examination of the variations between his preliminary project of 1934 and his third edition of the tables of 1942 shows that, in the printed tables, there is a definite step forward in the matter of "national" adjustment, whereas a slight regression is noticed in the changes based on ideological considerations.

So far, I have dealt with the changes from the Soviet librarian's viewpoint and touched upon the ideological background on which most of the changes are based, without undertaking to judge whether the projects of modification of D.C., discussed above, best answer the needs of Soviet librarianship at present. It is quite likely that a somewhat more suitable scheme could be devised. The changes, however, are of interest to us not merely from the point of view of library technique, or even because they throw some light on trends of Russian scholarship generally and reflect the ideological and political fluctuations of the Soviet regime, but also because they bring into sharper focus our own problems in dealing with Soviet literature. Even from our point of view—which Soviet scholars may consider "bourgeois," but which we would like to believe to be completely unbiased and neutral—there is still the problem of dealing adequately with the tremendous output of Russian literature and scholarship. Classifiers of Russian books in our li-

libraries encounter considerable difficulties in their everyday work, trying to find a suitable place for some of the material cataloged, not because they are concerned with ideological differences but simply because there is no adequate room in our classifications for specific Soviet literature, since, on the whole, these schemes were devised before the development of Russia as a socialist republic. The question is, how are we to remedy

this situation? For us to adopt any of the suggested Soviet changes to D.C. is, naturally, out of the question. Is there any other solution, besides that of revising some parts of the decimal classification and the Library of Congress schedules (DK and HC in particular), to provide a few more divisions for Russian history and economics after 1918? The answer to this question is beyond the scope of this paper.

THE COVER DESIGN

JOHANNES GRAPHAEUS (in the vernacular, Van Schrijver) was born in Alost about 1502. He migrated to the flourishing city of Antwerp and opened a printing office in the Street of the Augustinians. There he finished printing his first known book in August, 1527. About 1531 he moved his establishment to the vicinity of the Lombard fortress, where he conducted his business at the Sign of the Linden Tree. He was admitted a member of St. Luke's Guild at Antwerp in 1532.

Until 1533 Graphaeus, with but few exceptions, published all the books which he printed. But at the beginning of 1533 he changed his policy and printed almost entirely for other stationers. He printed in 1534 the *Historia evangelica* of the early Christian poet, Caius Vectius Juvencus; part of this edition was sold by Reginald Oliver of Ipswich. He is said to have printed for the use of Cardinal Wolsey's grammar school at Ipswich an edition of Wolsey's *Rudimenta grammatices et docendi methodus*.

Almost all Graphaeus' books were learned in character. They were printed in Latin, Greek, French, Flemish, Italian, Spanish,

English, and (as quotations) Hebrew. Theology, history, science, law, and the works of contemporary humanists (including Erasmus and the printer's elder brother, Cornelius Scribonius Graphaeus) formed the bulk of his productions. He printed almost no popular literature.

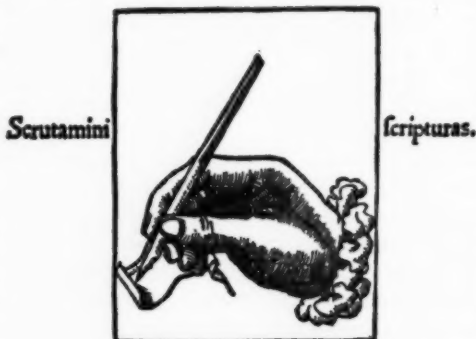
Typographically, Graphaeus' books are well printed but drab and uninteresting in style. The only notable exceptions are a few books with woodcut illustrations. The best of these is probably Gemma Phrysius' *De principiis astronomiae et cosmographiae* (1530), which has some interesting woodcuts of globes.

Graphaeus continued printing until about 1540; his last book is dated 1539. In 1543 he retired to the monastery of Guillemites in his native city of Alost.

One of Graphaeus' marks is here reproduced. It constitutes a pun on the printer's name. A hand—evidently that of God—emerges from a cloud and writes with a reed pen on a sheet of paper or parchment, probably representing the Bible. In type at the sides of the woodcut appear the words, *Scrutamini scripturas* ("Search the Scriptures"—John 5:29).

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY



THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

ARTHUR BERTHOLD is Chief of the Preparations Division, University of Chicago Library, a position he has held since October, 1945. For biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, V (1935), 348. From 1936 to 1942 he was bibliographer and associate director of the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center, and during this period he participated as a delegate to the Zurich conference of the International Federation for Documentation (1939) and in the survey of union catalogs in the United States (1940-41). Mr. Berthold served with the Office of Strategic Services from 1942 to 1945. His publications include *Union Catalogs, a Selective Bibliography* (1936), *On the Systematization of Documents in Ancient Times* (1938), and *Russian Corporate Headings* (1939). He has also contributed numerous reviews to library periodicals.

LEENDERT BRUMMEL, librarian of the Royal Library in The Hague, Netherlands, was born at Arnhem, Netherlands, on August 10, 1897. He received the Ph.D. degree from the University of Leyden in 1925 and served as librarian of the Royal Netherlands Academy of Sciences in Amsterdam from 1926 to 1927. Subsequently he went to the Royal Library in The Hague, becoming director in 1937. His publications include *Nederland en de Internationale Uitwisseling van Geschriften* (1930), a monograph on the international exchange of publications, and *Geschiedenis der Koninklijke Bibliotheek* (1939), a history of the Royal Library. He is a member of the board of editors of the bibliographical periodical *Het Boek* and has contributed to historical and library periodicals.

NATHALIE DELOUGAZ: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, XV (1945), 244.

WILHELM MUNTHE: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, IV (1934), 363. In 1936 Mr. Munthe visited the United States at the invitation of the Carnegie Corporation, and out of his observations he wrote *American Libraries from a European Angle* (1939). In 1947 he was elected to the presidency of the International Federation of Library Associations.

JAN F. VANDERHEYDEN has been secretary of the Albert I Memorial Library Foundation since 1935, and, since 1938, associate professor at the University of Louvain. He was born in Heverlee, Belgium, in 1903. He received a Master's degree from Harvard University and the doctorate from the University of Louvain; he has also studied at the universities of Chicago, Marburg, and Vienna. Mr. Vanderheyden entered library service in the Royal Library of Belgium in Brussels in 1929. He is the author of several studies of middle Dutch literature and has edited, in collaboration, the *Règles Catalographiques à l'Usage des Bibliothèques de Belgique* (1933); in addition he has contributed monographs and periodical articles on matters of library concern in Belgium and in the United States. He visited American libraries in 1932 and again in 1946.

REVIEWS

Code de catalogage des imprimés communs: dictionnaire des cas. Paris: Association Française de Normalisation, 1945. Pp. vii+381.

The cataloging rules presented here in preliminary form are an outcome of steps taken by the International Standards Committee at its meeting in 1938, following the Fourteenth International Conference on Documentation. It is one of several projects sponsored by French groups looking toward standardization of bibliographical methods and apparatus. The work has apparently been under the general sponsorship of the Association Française de Normalisation, with the Union Française des Organismes de Documentation the active agency in bringing it to the stage of publication. The general editor is Mme Suzanne Briet, assistant curator of printed books at the Bibliothèque Nationale and general secretary of the U.F.O.D. Other groups, including the Association des Bibliothécaires Français, have been in touch with the project and have given assistance to it. The Bibliothèque Nationale, through participation of its staff, has made substantial contributions and furthered the work in other ways.

While the ultimate objective is undoubtedly to bring about accepted international standards for author entries and book description, the present work evidently aims first to establish such rules for French libraries. The catalog codes which have been drawn on are primarily French and include (1) the rules for printed books of the Bibliothèque Nationale compiled by E. G. Ledos in 1923 and revised by Amand Rastoul in 1940, (2) the rules of the Association des Bibliothécaires Français (A.B.F.) in the editions of 1912 and 1929, and (3) the rules of the Vatican Library (2d ed., 1939). In addition, there are numerous contributions by specialists, principally rules for special materials.

The arrangement is an alphabetical one, although the Preface indicates that the final edition will be in a logical arrangement. The dictionary arrangement is not likely to be practicable as a working tool and complicates the problem of securing guidance on related questions. More references are needed. For example, under "Academies" (p. 2) there is a brief general

rule but without reference to the fuller treatment of societies and associations which is found under the heading for "Societies" (p. 211).

This is a comprehensive code covering not only rules for author and title entry but also rules for book description and, in addition, such topics as capitalization and filing. There are sections also which deal with subject headings. Apparently a selection has been made of what were considered the fundamental or the more important rules, as in few cases are the rules comprehensive. It will undoubtedly provide an excellent working manual for use in creating the more finished product which is envisaged for the future.

Since the revised (1941) edition of the Anglo-American rules did not enter into the compilation of this *Code*, it will be of interest to make some comparisons with that work.

The rules for personal names are of special interest, since substantial international agreement can be hoped for in this group. In the main, there is such agreement between these rules and the Anglo-American, although there are differences and undoubtedly more than there need be.

It is recommended as a general rule that the author entry comprise the full name of the author (p. 146). This is expanded somewhat under the rules for forenames (pp. 182-84), where it is urged that an effort be made to secure all forenames in full and include them in the author entry. It is further suggested that a forename preferred in usage by the author, when it is not the first, be placed in italics, i.e. "Hugo, Charles Marie Victor." The Anglo-American rules, while stressing the desirability of full names, recommend the omission of unused forenames in author headings with a reference only from the full form. On Library of Congress cards the full name is printed in a bracketed note on the lower part of the card. The French rules, by italicizing the preferred name, provide for filing under that form, with the final result, as far as arrangement is concerned, the same as under Anglo-American rules. However, the French rules result often in a cumbersome heading and complicate filing somewhat.

Forenames of foreign authors are to be given in the original language of the writer, in accordance with Bibliothèque Nationale practice. This rule, which is one to be recommended for international adoption, is stated on p. 183 of the *Code*; but on the following page, under "Gallitized Forenames," it is recommended that forenames of foreign authors be given in the French form when there is one, i.e., "Heine, Henri" (not Heinrich). This rule is taken from the 1912 edition of the A.B.F. rules. It is hoped that the first rule may prevail over the latter in the interest of exactitude and universal utility. The custom of translating forenames into the language of a catalog has no doubt been perpetuated and strengthened by certain standard reference works which follow this custom regularly, especially French and Spanish encyclopedias. Johan Sebastian Bach in *Larousse* is Jean Sébastien Bach; in *Espasa* he is Juan Sebastián Bach.

A somewhat similar problem, but one not so easily solved, is posed by authors who are entered under forenames. Five classes of such entries are listed: (1) saints, (2) popes (3) rulers, (4) writers of the Middle Ages, and (5) members of religious orders (p. 183). Entry under forenames for these groups is accepted in principle by most modern cataloging codes, variations occurring chiefly in the form of the name chosen for entry—Latin, the vernacular, or the language of the cataloger. The *Code* recommends that the French form be used for the first three categories. The Anglo-American rules, on the other hand, prefer the Latin form for saints of the early and medieval church and the vernacular for modern saints. For popes the Latin pontifical name is prescribed. These rules result in entries which can be incorporated without change into catalogs of all countries using the Latin alphabet, and so are to be preferred from the international standpoint. Anglo-American enters sovereigns and ruling princes under the vernacular form of the name, not the English form. While there may be stronger argument here for the French preference of a French form, the vernacular could be universal usage and should impose no serious hardship on readers in all types of libraries. Possibly in small popular libraries where there is little material in foreign languages, these names which are of subject rather than author interest would more easily be found under the form in everyday usage in the country.

A further preference for the French spelling is found under the rules for classical authors.

Ancient Greek and Latin authors are entered under the French form of the name—i.e., "Platon" instead of "Plato" and "Horace" instead of "Horatius Flaccus (Quintus)." Medieval and Renaissance writers, on the other hand, who have written under latinized names, are entered under the Latin form. In the case of well-known classical authors whose works are current in new editions, there is a certain convenience and simplicity in adopting as entry word the form of name popularly used in a particular language—"Aesop" in English, "Ésope" in French. However, the use of the Latin form is universally understood and, if subscribed to by all libraries of a research character at least, would facilitate the exchange of bibliographical information between countries.

In view of the general tendency to prefer a French form of the name, it is a little surprising to note that Oriental writers whose names have become familiar under a European form are entered under the vernacular. This rule is taken from the Vatican Code, 88, and is contrary to Anglo-American (1941), 66, which prefers the European form and, for early writers, the adopted Latin form. The case cited is "Avicenna, 980?—1037," whose original name is "Ibn Sīnā, Abū ʿAlī al-Ḥusayn, ibn ʿAbd Allāh." Bibliothèque Nationale enters under the French form of the Latin, "Avicenne."

Authors whose surnames and forenames are the same are to be distinguished by the addition of dates of birth and death. It is apparent that dates are not to be added in all cases, principal reliance for the differentiation of writers with the same surname being placed on the addition of all forenames in full. The suggestion is offered that birth and death dates may be added to an authority card which shall precede the other cards representing the author's works.

The troublesome question of entry for names with prefixes is not fully set out where one would look for them in the section devoted to names (pp. 144-59). The rule for Italian names, which is in the nature of an exception, is reproduced here (A.B.F. [1912], 40). From this and from examples appearing in the filing rules, the inference is drawn that the rules to be followed for such names are those of the A.B.F. (1912). These call for entry of names beginning with an article, or an article and a preposition combined, under the prefix (A.B.F. [1912], 39). A preposition alone before the name proper does not become entry word. This is substantially the same as Anglo-American, except that, in the

latter, prefixes are always entry word for names in English. A.B.F. (1912), 40, makes an exception for Italian names beginning with "dei," "del," "delle," and "della," entering these under the part following the prefix, as does Anglo-American. This exception is applied also to German names beginning with "vom" and Dutch names beginning with "de," e.g., "Hagen (vom)," "Clerk (de)." For Spanish and Portuguese names the *Code* calls for entry under article when used alone or when preceded by a preposition. Anglo-American disagrees here and enters Spanish and Portuguese names under the part following the prefix—i.e., "Casas, Bartolomé de las."

Works published anonymously or pseudonymously are to be entered under the true name of the author when it can be determined. Rare exceptions may be made, and Anglo-American rules agree on this in cases where the pseudonym has in effect displaced the real name—i.e., "Jules Romains." The general rule for anonymous entries is very satisfactory, calling for entry under the first word of the title not an article, the subsequent arrangement to be strictly in the order of the words of the title. Exceptions are made in a few cases, as in anonymous biographies beginning with the word "Vie." Instead of arranging these strictly by word order, the second entry word is that of the biographee, which is printed in italics or underlined—i.e., "Vie du Cardinal du Bérulle."

Anonymous classics, including sacred books, epics, romances, plays, etc., are to be entered under the conventional form in French. A comprehensive list of headings is given for the Bible, and similar treatment is suggested for other sacred books, such as the Koran, Talmud, and Vedas. The apocryphal books of the Bible are entered directly under their individual titles in Latin and not under Bible. This rule is taken from the Vatican *Code* and is contrary to the Anglo-American rules, which enter apocryphal books of the Bible as subheadings under "Bible."

The definition of "author" (pp. 33-34) specifically includes societies, governments, and institutions as authors of their publications. This involves the use of corporate entry—a concept which has not been so generally accepted on the European continent as in the British Isles and the Americas. Attention should be called to the clear and concise statement for entries of societies as author. An explanation is given of the authority card as described by

the Vatican rules, which correspond closely to Library of Congress practice.

The general rule calls for entry of a society under the first word of its name, excluding the article, and with reference from the place where it is located. While the definitions draw a distinction between societies and institutions, the same rule is applied to both as regards entry. The following examples of institutional entries bear this out: "Université de Paris"; "Stadelsches Kunstinstitut, (Francfort sur le Main)"; "Bibliothèque Nationale, (Paris)"; "Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, (Paris)." Anglo-American rules would enter these under place.

Government publications.—The rules for government publications are announced as to be published separately and are referred to only incidentally in the *Code*. Examples given in the section devoted to periodicals indicate that government departments are entered directly under their names, not first under the name of the country or other political unit, as Anglo-American does. For example, a publication of the Secretaría de Educación Pública of Mexico is entered directly under "Secretaría." This method fails to bring the publications of a government together in the author catalog, and for many other reasons seems impractical for the modern catalog.

Periodicals.—Under this heading appears an interesting and instructive description of a periodical catalog based on the catalog of the Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, as described in a paper by Mlle Le Masne. This catalog is in fact two catalogs—one with the periodicals arranged by title, or by society if the title is not distinctive, and the other geographically by country and city. It requires a statement of holdings on at least one card in each of the two catalogs. The description of the periodical records of this library exhibit many interesting features, but the plan is from the point of view of the library which does not include periodicals in its general catalog. It does not make use of the unit card but calls for special card forms which could not easily be incorporated into a general catalog. It serves to separate the publications of societies, since the monographs issued by societies will be in the general author catalog, while serials issued by the same societies will appear only in the special catalog.

Transcription of title.—There will be general agreement on the rules presented for transcription of title, although different types and sizes

of libraries will have exceptions to suit their own needs. The basic principle as stated is to follow the title-page exactly without changing the language, order of words, or spelling. Omissions are indicated by three dots, and the nature of some permissible omissions is specifically stated. Additions, when needed to clarify the meaning or for grammatical reasons, are inserted within square brackets. Varying policy is indicated with respect to the inclusion of author's name within the body of the title. It is always retained in the title by the Bibliothèque Nationale, but the suggestion is made that other libraries may omit the author's name when the form in the title is identical with that used in the entry. The A.B.F. rule to place matter regarding edition, translation, series, etc., appearing at the head of the title, within parentheses at the end of the transcribed title seems to have been modified in favor of relegating this information to a note (see example, p. 87, "En tête de la page de titre: 3^{ème} éd.")

Pagination.—Preliminary paging is to be indicated in roman numerals (if unnumbered, in brackets), the main paging in arabic. If the main paging takes up where the preliminary paging leaves off, no note will be made of the preliminary pages, since they will be assumed to be included in the total. To establish the total paging, all leaves with printed matter are counted, whether paged or not, including blank pages which have printing on the reverse. This is true at least of unpagged printed matter at the end of a book. The number arrived at in this way is not bracketed. Whether unpagged matter occurring at some other point in the main part of the book would be likewise added is not specifically stated. There will be some dissatisfaction with the liberties taken with the pagination actually used in the book.

Illustrations.—When frontispiece, illustrations, plates, maps, etc. are included in the pagination they are so indicated, i.e., "xvi-357 p., front., ill., pl. inc." No example is given for a case where one or more of these items are not included in the pagination. It is stated, however, that the number of plates shall be indicated for books where the plates are the principal feature of the book.

Subject headings.—Considerable attention is given to the problems of the dictionary subject catalog, with numerous rules from the Vatican Code's excellent treatment of this subject. Fourteen principles are set forth (pp. 49-50); many of these are further elaborated on pp. 213-23.

Subheadings to be used under specific languages (Vatican, 444) appear on pp. 129-32; subheadings to be used under towns (Vatican, 422), on pp. 252-55; subheadings under countries (Vatican, 92), on pp. 153-56. It is hoped that this problem will receive more study from international library groups than it has in the past. The substantial attention given the subject here will undoubtedly promote that end.

Much useful material appears in the appendices: (1) a list of abbreviations, chiefly French, German, and English (Appendix III), (2) definitions (Appendix IV), (3) transliteration tables for seventeen languages, including Chinese (Appendix VI). These are followed by full treatment of cataloging of special types of material: (1) prints (Appendix VII), (2) maps and charts (Appendix VIII), (3) music (Appendix IX).

RUDOLPH GJELSNES

Department of Library Science
University of Michigan

Fonds Bibliothèque Albert I: Rapport au gouvernement sur ses travaux depuis sa constitution en 1935—Albert I Bibliotheekfonds: Verslag aan de Regeering over zijn Werkzaamheden sedert zijn Stichting in 1935. Brussels, 1946. Pp. 123.

Many American librarians have known that it had been determined to make the national memorial to King Albert I of Belgium a national library. But the vicissitudes of the last dozen years, including nearly five years of German occupation, have caused us to lose sight of this wholly worthy undertaking. Here is set out the history of the project in great detail. But it must be said at the outset that the net result is wholly negative: the "Fonds" has no legal existence, the library has not even been begun, and this report is published at the expense of the president of the Fonds, Count Sippens.

Briefly, the history of the undertaking may be summarized as follows: On its constitution in 1935 the foundation organized and proceeded to a study of its problem. It first determined to use the site of the neighborhood of the present Royal Library and organized an architectural competition for both the treatment of the terrain and the construction of the library as part of a group of buildings. Then this decision was revoked and the site determined as the Botanic

Gardens. This was also abandoned, and the original location for the library was again adopted.

The Fonds awarded the layout of the plot of ground—as the result of a competition and the decision of a wholly competent jury—to the architect Ghobert. This involved several decisions which affected the library, including that to separate the “Cabinets des Médailles et des Estampes” from the library proper and to retain the present Royal Library as a storage building. Through all the changes in detail these decisions have been held to.

Likewise there was awarded the planning of the actual library to the architect Houyoux. This report gives in great detail the provisions of these two contracts. The plans for the library are naturally of most interest to librarians. At the outset its character and purpose were defined for the guidance of the architects: it was to be a “scientific” library in its acquisitions (probably a translation of the German “wissenschaftliche Bibliothek”) but was to be widely open to the public for reading. It was not thought necessary that prints and medals should be housed in the library building. Incidentally, it should be said that there was able and abundant technical advice, the heads of nearly all the important Belgian libraries being drawn into service as consultants.

There are reproduced in this report the plans not only for the library but for all the other buildings included in the remodeling of the area. The sharp declivity of the ground has been well taken advantage of. Of course, these plans suffer from the fact that they are merely preliminary, not actual, drawings. But even so they will well repay study, and there have been noted no particularly bad features.

The cost as estimated has steadily risen. It is now calculated that the whole operation will cost 220,000,000 Belgian francs (value of August, 1939). The library is a major part of this sum, but it should be said that the whole operation cannot be carried out singly. The library cost could not be separated from the cost of working over the terrain and erecting the other buildings, for the library is an essential part of the whole plan.

A beautiful part of this report is the photographs which illustrate it, including those of models of the different buildings. It is to be hoped that some day this profoundly well

thought out project will be realized in actual construction.

WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP

University of Michigan Library

Danske Biblioteksbygninger. By CARL JØRGENSEN. (“Statens Bibliotekstilsyns Publikationer,” No. 18.) Copenhagen: Folkebibliotekernes bibliografiske Kontor, 1946. Pp. 136.

This work is based on the replies of thirty-nine Danish public libraries to a questionnaire sent out by the Statens Bibliotekstilsyn covering virtually all aspects of the physical plant. Unlike Wheeler and Githens’ *The American Public Library Building*, no attempt is made to give a comprehensive critical analysis of the problem as a whole. Each building is considered separately, and Jørgensen points out the advantages or disadvantages of each. An introductory essay by Stadsbibliotekar Carl Thomsen provides the general background for the study.

Jørgensen examines structures of all types, from the modest village libraries of Tinglev and Vinderup to the handsome new (1934-35) building of the Frederiksberg (pop. 115,000) Public Library, the largest in Denmark. Copenhagen, provided with two magnificent research collections in the Royal Library and the University Libraries as well as several good special libraries, is in much the same position as New York City in that its Kommunebiblioteker have no central building of their own. The war has delayed both the construction of a central building and the installation of additional branches, but there is an already well-organized system of ward libraries (Kredsbiiblioteker), of which the building of the Olandsgade Branch is presented as a characteristic example. Building plans of a number of smaller communities were also interrupted by the war.

Twenty-five of the buildings described in this volume are new, while fourteen are older structures remodeled to serve as libraries. Several communities have achieved relatively good results in remodeling older buildings, although this practice is hardly advisable if it is at all possible to build from the ground up. One relatively large city library, the Odense Centralbibliotek, is housed in what was formerly the monastery of St. Knud—a building no more suitable for a

popular library than a collegiate library of Oxford or Cambridge would be. In spite of clever adaptations, the Odense library was unable to provide for separate quarters for many functions which are essential in a good popular library: children's and youth rooms, a newspaper room, and rooms for study groups.

The oldest of the new buildings included by Jørgensen is that of Silkeborg, one of the first cities in Denmark to provide its public library with a building and financial support comparable to similar provisions made for the public schools. By 1928-29, when Det Nordjyske Landsbibliotek in Aalborg received its building, structural principles for all types of Danish public libraries had been well established; and the buildings which were to follow in the thirties had an abundance of both good and bad precedents. Building increased rapidly during the years immediately before the war, and six structures were even completed during the first two years of the Nazi occupation. A particularly significant aspect of this program was the fact that a relatively large proportion of these new buildings were in rural communities.

During the period when Denmark's new public library buildings were constructed, costs were not excessive. Together with their furnishings, the twenty largest of the new buildings represent an investment of less than a million dollars (value of land not included). Thomsen points out that while this figure is approximately 8 per cent of expenditures for school buildings, this proportion is not constant. Several communities have had to expand their libraries, and others are planning expansions.

Three types of buildings are distinguished, aside from the one-room library represented by a single example in the present volume: the T-type (also called *Sommerfugle* or summer bird type), which has the special advantage of being able to use natural light extensively; the basilica type, in which the open shelving runs parallel to the reading-rooms, like the arrangement of the nave and aisles of a basilica; and the "penitentiary" type, a rectangular building in which the reading-rooms and the open shelving are an extension of one another, or one is above the other, something like the cells in a penitentiary.

Danish calculations for space needed generally run to about the same that is allowed in American public libraries. Thomsen urges that future buildings provide adequately for open

shelving, of which there has not always been enough in existing Danish libraries. The newspaper reading-room is viewed with the same suspicion in Denmark to which we are accustomed in America (*cf.* Wheeler and Githens, pp. 126-27), but other reading-rooms, especially those for study groups, are amply provided. It is interesting to note that one study-group room per five thousand inhabitants is not considered excessive. Just as in America, there is some debate about the validity of a lecture-room. Danish librarians recognize fully the importance of Andrew Carnegie's conception of the library as a community intellectual center and the role of a lecture-room in helping it to attain this position, but at the same time it is urged that a lecture-room should not be allowed to detract from purely bibliothecal activities.

Physically, Jørgensen's book is comparable in nearly every respect to the larger work of Wheeler and Githens. Numerous photographs of both interiors and exteriors and detailed floor plans are well reproduced and appropriately located in the text.

It may be hoped that other European nations, notably the other four Scandinavian countries, the Low Countries, and Switzerland, all of which have been moving forward rapidly in the development of good public library systems, will soon produce comparable volumes. The present work is not only informative in regard to Danish libraries but instructive in that there are a number of smaller details brought out in the illustrations and descriptions which are pertinent for our own libraries.

LAWRENCE S. THOMPSON

Western Michigan College Library

Phaidros: Zeitschrift für die Freunde des Buches und der schönen Künste, Folge 1, Vienna: H. Bauer-Verlag, 1947. Pp. 80. Herausgegeben von der Österreichischen Nationalbibliothek. (To appear bi-monthly; no price given.)

Under the distinguished editorship of Josef Bick, recently reinstated as general director of the Österreichische Nationalbibliothek, and Josef Gregor, *Phaidros* has made an auspicious beginning. The content of this first issue (rather enigmatically numbered merely "Folge 1") indicates that it will be not merely a house organ

such as the bulletins of the Boston and New York Public Libraries but also a general periodical dealing with librarianship, bibliophily, and the arts. While it will be devoted primarily to things Austrian, there will be no taint of nationalism; contributions have already been promised by Julien Cain and Hans von Hülsen ("Die letzten Tage Gerhart Hauptmanns").

Dr. Bick is the author of the first article, a discussion of the present status and future prospects of the great Zentralbibliothek planned for Vienna during the 1930's by Werner Thies. This "union library," the Austrian reply to the storage building and the microcard, is conceived as a skyscraper of some thirty stories to house the Nationalbibliothek as well as the University of Vienna Library and the numerous special libraries of the metropolitan area. This notion of a single nonlending depository reference library for one city would seem to offer a challenging field for experimentation, however expensive. It would be so expensive, in fact, that Dr. Bick virtually despairs of the erection of the Zentralbibliothek by the present Austrian state and dreams rather distantly of hope for aid from the occupying powers.

One other article of specific interest to librarians of research institutions is Josef Stummvoll's "Vier Jahre als Bibliothekar im Nahen Osten"—an account of the establishment, organization, and development of the library of the Agricultural-Veterinary University (Yüksek Ziraat Enstitüsü) in Ankara. Stummvoll's notes offer a wealth of practical experience which should prove to be especially valuable to some of our land-grant college librarians.

Literature is represented in this first issue of *Phaidros* by a translation of Maxim Gorky's reminiscences of Anton Chekhov. Taken directly from an unpublished manuscript in the Nationalbibliothek's "Sammlung Stefan Zweig," a gift of the late Austrian writer, this fragment is a

revealing account of Gorky's reflections on Chekhov approximately a decade after the latter's death. In the field of music, ever one of the Nationalbibliothek's strongest points, material is yielded from the collections for two articles on Anton Bruckner. Otto Breckler discusses and edits some unpublished letters of the composer, and Leopold Nowak describes an exhibition sponsored by the Nationalbibliothek on the occasion of the semi-centennial of Bruckner's death on October 11, 1946.

The graphic arts form the last category represented in this issue. Hans Ankewicz-Klee-hoven's article on "Handzeichnungen der Nazarener in der Akademie der bildenden Künste" is handsomely illustrated by nine reproductions in black and white. In addition, there are three superbly executed color plates—one from a Renaissance manuscript and two from seventeenth-century prints, all three in the Nationalbibliothek—which are not supported by any text. Franz Ottmann's brief note on "Österreichische Kunst vom Mittelalter bis zur Gegenwart" is a sensitive interpretation of Austrian art as represented in a postwar coming-out exhibition.

Phaidros is a distinct innovation in the field of library bulletins in that its content is by no means strictly bibliographical. On the other hand, careful editing (enhanced by good design and good printing) has insured it against any danger of becoming an aesthetic grab-bag. Its basic purpose is to interpret Austrian culture as revealed by the Nationalbibliothek and the interests and investigations of its librarians and friends; and strict observance of this policy will win it a permanent place on the shelves of librarians, collectors, Germanicists, and lovers of the arts.

LAWRENCE S. THOMPSON

Western Michigan College Library

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